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UNIVERSAL HISTORY
AMERICANISED;

OR,

AN HISTORICAL VIEW OF THE WORLD,

FROM THE EARLIEST RECORDS TO THE YEAR 1808.

WITH A PARTICULAR REFERENCE

TO THE

STATE OF SOCIETY, LITERATURE, RELIGION, AND FORM OF GOVERNMENT,

IN THE

UNITED STATES OF AMERICA.

BY DAVID RAMSAY, M. D.

TO WHICH IS ANNEXED,

A SUPPLEMENT,

CONTAINING

A BRIEF VIEW OF HISTORY,

FROM THE YEAR 1808 TO THE BATTLE OF WATERLOO.

"Life is so short, and time so valuable, that it were happy for us if all "great works were reduced to their quintessence." *Sir William Jones.*

"Primaque ab origine mundi
"Ad mea perpetuum deducite tempora carmen." *Ovid.*

IN TWELVE VOLUMES.

VOL. IX.

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RAMSAY'S

UNIVERSAL HISTORY.

EGYPT,

HAS the Mediterranean for its boundary on the north; the isthmus of Suez and the red sea on the east; Nubia, the deserts of Barca, and unknown regions of Africa on the south and west. It is called in the Holy Scriptures Misraim, and the land of Ham, having been first inhabited, after the deluge, by Noah's youngest son Ham, and by his son Misraim. Writers of Universal History, generally, treat of Egypt first. It is doubtless one of the oldest nations of the world, but cannot have an exclusive claim to priority. As it lay south-west from the supposed centre of postdiluvian settlement, it was in a line with the usual stream of population, and was therefore probably soon occupied; but being at some considerable distance from it, was not likely to be settled before the countries which were nearer, or lay between. The first choice of sites for settlement by adventurers into new countries, are generally high, or at least dry lands. When the low lands of Egypt were subdued by cultivation, their fertility would both attract and maintain numerous settlers; but this must have been a work of time.* We have there-

* Of the families who went in quest of new settlements, those who took possession of Egypt seem to have been the most fortunate. That singular country given, by its situation among deserts, to enjoy more than insular security, offered in wonderful abundance the necessaries of life. Its periodical floods, which to the unexperienced might appear ministers only of desolation, would be known by those who had seen the Euphrates or Tigris

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fore, departed from our predecessors, so far as to treat of Egypt and other parts of Africa, after Asia.

Egypt is situated between the forty-eighth and fifty-third degree of longitude, and the twenty-fourth and thirty-third degree of north latitude; its length from north to south, is near six hundred miles, and the breadth of its coast, on the Mediterranean, from east to west is about two hundred and ninety miles. This country is divided into upper, middle, and lower Egypt.

The first part, or that nearest the cataracts, was formerly embellished with a great number of superb cities, majestic temples, palaces, tombs, obelisks, and especially that famous city Thebes, celebrated for its astonishing population, its riches, and its edifices. Ancient authorities tell, that from each of its hundred gates it could send out two hundred chariots, and ten thousand men. The ruins, still remaining, of this great city, render what we are told of it credible. Memphis, in the middle Egypt, without equalling Thebes, still exhibits to the eyes of travellers magnificent remains. It is believed that the lower part of Egypt, named Delta, on account of its resemblance in figure to the Greek letter of that name, is a creation of the Nile, which by depositing its mud, has formed this accumulation of land.

periodically overflow their banks, to be among the most precious boons of nature. For from the operation of the waters of the Nile, almost the whole of that, strictly called Egypt, receives a kind of tillage, as well as a very rich manuring, so that besides producing spontaneously, a profusion of herbs and roots, which form a coarse but wholesome food, it is, moreover, very advantageously prepared by the hand of nature, almost alone, for the reception of any grain that man may throw into it. Thus invited, the occupants of Egypt gave their attention to agriculture; and the fertility of the soil making the returns prodigiously great, populousness quickly followed abundance; polity became necessary; and we are told that in this country was constituted the first regular government. Science appears to have originated in Asia. Of the arts, Egypt was probably the mother of many, as she was certainly the nurse of most. The sciences appear to have received attention there, only in proportion to their supposed importance to civil life. Geometry is said to have been the offspring of the peculiar necessity of the country; for the annual overflowings of the Nile, obliterating ordinary land marks, that science alone could ascertain the bounds of property.

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The animals, peculiar to Egypt, are the hippopotamus or river horse, an untameable, fierce, and very irritable animal, the crocodile, an amphibious and voracious monster of the lizard kind, but sometimes thirty feet or more in length, the ichneumon, a kind of rat, which clears the land from reptiles and other insects, engendered in the mud after the inundation. It is also a very formidable enemy to the crocodile, the eggs of which it breaks, wherever it finds them. We likewise find there, cameleons, apes, camels, and gazelles.

Among the birds of this country, the eagle and falcon are distinguished. From the banks of the Nile and the lakes, the pelican, the heron, large flocks of wild ducks, and other aquatic birds, take their flight. The ostrich runs over the sandy plains which surround Egypt, and the ibis, a bird formerly worshipped, and still greatly esteemed, takes his station at the entrance of the desert as on a frontier to be guarded, and devours the serpents which Lybia sends. Fish are likewise very abundant, and furnish the principal food of the common people. The revenue which the fish of the lake Manzalak brings in to the Turkish emperor, amounts to forty thousand crowns per annum.

Trees, excepting such as bear fruit, are rare; of the latter the date is the most common, and of the others the palm, cedars, and a thorny tree, supposed to be the acacia, are the most useful. Egypt produces flax, which has always been in much esteem, and the papyrus, which supplied the Egyptians with paper, garments, utensils and medicines, and of which they even ate the pith. They made similar use of the lotus, or lily of the lakes. Whoever has tasted the fruits, vegetables, and esculent roots of Egypt, will not wonder that the Jews so much regretted their loss of them. The other plants, roots, and fruits, which afford food to the inhabitants, are so excellent, and grow in such abundance, that they are almost sufficient to maintain the people, without the use of corn; but the great wealth of the country arises from its luxuriant harvests, which, in an almost universal famine, enable it to support the neighbouring nations. This was proved under the administration of the patriarch

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Joseph. In later ages, Egypt has been justly called the granary of Rome and Constantinople.

The objects most attractive of curiosity in Egypt, are the pyramids, which have been justly placed among the wonders of the world. The three principal ones are situated near the spot where Memphis formerly stood, and where Grand Cairo at present stands. The word pyramid, the names of their architects, the time when they were built, and the manner in which they were erected, have all been the subjects of learned, but unprofitable dissertations.

The largest and finest pyramid is situated advantageously on a rock a hundred feet high, in the middle of a level plain. It is a perfect square, each side of which correspondent with one of the four cardinal points, and precisely adjusted to the meridian, is nearly seven hundred feet in length, at the base. The area of the whole contains something more than ten acres. The height of the pyramid is nearly five hundred feet, and its dimensions continually contract upwards till it terminates in a flat surface, about sixteen feet square, and composed of nine pieces. It may be ascended, though with considerable difficulty, by layers of stone which form steps, by retiring three feet each layer. On entering it, by a passage in the middle, we find galleries and staircases, the walls of which are of a brilliant stone, beautifully polished, and, in the largest chamber, coated with beautiful marble, there is still a tomb of porphyry, to which the light cannot penetrate by any opening.

Few questions have been disputed with greater warmth, than that which relates to the builders of these stupendous monuments. Josephus imagined they were erected by the Israelites, during their hard captivity under the Pharaohs; but this opinion seems fully refuted by the language of scripture, which informs us, that the slavish employment of Israel was the making of bricks, whereas these pyramids are constructed of stone. Others suppose that they were erected (in consequence of Joseph's solemn prediction) for granaries to lay up corn, during the seven plentiful years; but this idea is groundless, since the figure of a pyramid is

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the least capacious of any regular mathematical body, and the small dimensions of the rooms within utterly overthrow such a conjecture.

We can neither determine with certainty the object, or the builders of these stupendous erections, nor the period when they were commenced or finished. We can, however, venture to assert, that their least antiquity must be near three thousand years; since Herodotus, who lived above two thousand two hundred years ago, found so little satisfaction in his enquiries after them; and Diodorus, who lived before the birth of Christ, supposes the great pyramid to have been built one thousand years before his time.

With respect to the end for which these monuments were erected, it is generally supposed, that they were designed for sepulchres and monuments of the dead.

Why the Egyptian monarchs should have burdened themselves, or their people, with such an enormous expense as must, of necessity, have been attached to the building these pyramids, is an enquiry of an higher nature. Aristotle has supposed them the work of tyranny; and Pliny imagines that they were built partly from ostentation, and partly out of state policy. But the true design seems to have sprung from the Egyptian theology, which taught its votaries, that so long as the body was preserved from decay, the soul continued with it; and hence we may account for the great pains, and curious precautions of the Egyptians, relative to the bodies of their deceased friends. These have been carried to so great an extent, that human carcases, called mummies, are still found entire under their aromatic bandages, which have existed for several centuries.

The reason why a pyramidal figure was generally chosen for the momuments seems to have been, because it is the most permanent form of structure; for by reason of the gradual construction towards the top, it is neither overburdened with its own weight, nor subject to the soaking of rain, as other buildings generally are.

Pliny and Diodorus agree in the assertion, that no less than three hundred and sixty thousand men were employed in

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erecting the first pyramid. It is said that twenty years were spent in the work; and Herodotus tells us, that there was, in his time, an inscription on the pyramid which expressed, that sixteen hundred talents of silver, or 413,333*l.* 6*s.* 8*d.* sterling were expended in garlic, leeks, onions, &c. for the workmen.

These monuments were prodigious, but they were rather designed as proofs of power than models of beauty. All are obliged to confess, that no potentate, now in being, could possibly raise such enormous and expensive piles of building. But that which we deem most admirable in these pyramids, is the incontrovertible evidence they afford of the early progress made by the Egyptians in astronomy; for the four sides of the great pyramid are turned exactly to the four quarters of the world, and consequently show the true meridian of that place. They also show that, during the long space of time which has elapsed since the erection of the monument, no alteration has taken place in the poles of the earth, or the meridians.

The celebrated structure situate near Arsinoe, and distinguished by the name of the Labyrinth, seems to have been designed as a pantheon of all the Egyptian deities, and as a place for the accommodation of the general assembly of magistracy of the whole nation. This truly wonderful building contained no less than three thousand chambers, fifteen hundred of which were subterraneous, and set apart, either for the sepulchre of the kings who built the labyrinth, or for the abodes of the sacred crocodiles. These were never shewn to strangers; but Herodotus informs us, that he viewed every room in the upper part, in which he found enough to fill him with astonishment. Innumerable exits, by different passages, and infinite returns, afforded a thousand occasions of wonder; while his conductor led him from a spacious hall to a chamber, from thence to a private cabinet, and then through other passages, that led to the more sumptuous rooms, where the roofs and walls were completely incrusted with fine marble, and adorned with exquisite sculptures. The halls were surrounded with beautiful polished columns, and at the termination of the labyrinth stood a pyramid of two

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hundred and forty feet high, decorated with large figures of various animals.

However curious and magnificent we may deem the Egyptian pyramids, and the justly celebrated labyrinth, Herodotus pronounces the lake of Moeris infinitely superior, and boldly affirms, that it is the noblest and most wonderful of all the works of the kings of Egypt. Its circumference is about twelve or fifteen leagues, which is prodigious, when we consider that it was formed by human labour, as appeared from two pyramids, which, in the time of Herodotus, raised their heads to the height of three hundred feet, in the centre of the lake.

This lake, in the deepest part, has fifty fathoms water; it stretches from north to south, and is fed by water from the Nile, by means of a channel cut for that purpose. Its construction is attributed to a king, called Moeris, who formed his great design for the purpose of correcting the irregularities of the Nile, either by preventing the stagnation of the water, in other places, to the detriment of the lands, or by preserving an ample supply, when the river failed in its usual prolific inundations.

An isle, of about one league in circumference, may be still seen in the middle of this lake, but no vestiges are discernible of the two pyramids which formerly stood here. These statements have come down to us from antiquity; but their incorrectness is justified by modern travellers, particularly by Brown and Denou.

The Nile is, in reality, the greatest wonder of Egypt, as by its annual augmentation it waters the surrounding lands, and abundantly supplies the defect which must, otherwise, inevitably result from the frequent want of rain. The sources of this river were unknown to the ancients, but they are now well known to be in Ethiopia. The Nile enters Egypt almost under the tropic of Cancer, precipitating itself over seven falls or cataracts.* Having passed though the upper and

* The appearance and roaring of these make the traveller shudder as he approaches them; but the inhabitants, used to them, exhibit to strangers an astonishing spectacle of intrepidity. Suspended on the top of the water, they

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middle Egypt, it divides itself into two large arms, a little below Memphis, and subdividing itself into seven channels, mingles its waters with those of the Mediterranean.

Though many subtle reasons were formerely invented to account for the great increase of this river, it is now universally acknowledged to be entirely owing to the heavy rains, which fall in Ethiopia. With respect to the time of its increase, it first commences in May, yet no public notice is taken of it till the latter end of June, when it has usually risen to the height of ten or twelve feet. The public criers then begin to proclaim it through all the Egyptian cities, and continue to publish its daily augmentation, till it rises to the height of twenty-four feet; when the dam of the great canal at Bulak is opened with great solemnity, and the day is devoted to feastings, fire works, and all other demonstrations of public rejoicing.

As the Nile could not of itself cover every part of the country in a due proportion, the Egyptians have, with great labour, cut a vast number of canals to facilitate the overflowing of their lands. The villages, that stand on eminences on the banks of the Nile, have their respective canals, and the more distant villages have theirs also, even to the extremities of the kingdom; by which means, the waters are successively conveyed to the most remote places. It is not lawful to cut the trenches for the reception of the waters, till the river has attained its proper height; neither must all the trenches be opened together; as, in that case, some lands would be injured by the inundation, while others would be almost totally deprived of their needful refreshment. The trenches are therefore opened with the greatest precaution, first in the upper, and afterwards in the lower Egypt; and the natives, who strictly attend to prescribed rules, contrive to dispose the fertilising fluid, so judiciously, that all parts of the country are plentifully watered.

There are indeed many elevated lands, which, notwith-

precipitate themselves down the rocks, and when they seem to be swallowed up, they re-appear at a distance, safely floating on the river, become calm as a canal.

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standing, these canals cannot possibly receive the benefit of the Nile's increase. This want is supplied by a great number of wells, spiral pumps, and wheels, which carry a rope of large earthern pots and draw water from the canals. In this labour no less than two hundred thousand labourers are daily employed, besides the men who draw water in wicker baskets of so fine a texture, that not a drop of the liquid runs through.

The Egyptian husbandmen have not the laborious task of ploughing, digging or breaking the clods; nor have they any occasion for manure, as the Nile, by bringing with it a profusion of mud or slime, fattens the earth, and makes it exceedingly fruitful. When, therefore, the river has retired, the agriculturists have no more to do than to mingle a little sand with the earth in order to abate its strength; after which, they cast in their seed with little trouble, and at an inconsiderable expense. They generally sow in October and November, as the waters subside; within two months, the ground is covered with a rich variety of grain and pulse, and the harvest is gathered in March and April.

In consequence of the overflowing of this truly wonderful river, Egypt exhibits, at different seasons of the year, two different, but very beautiful prospects. If a man ascends some lofty mountain, or one of the great pyramids of Grand Cairo, in the months of July and August, he beholds, with amazement, a spacious sea spotted with innumerable towns and villages intersected with several causeways, and occasionally contrasted with groves and orchards; while a magnificent display of mountainous scenery, bounds the delightful view, and terminates a most exquisite horizon, at the utmost distance the eye can discover. On the contrary, if the view be taken in winter, that is, in the months of January and February, the whole country resembles one extensive meadow clothed with the finest verdure, and enamelled with an infinite variety of flowers; the plains are embellished with numberless flocks and herds; the mild zephyrs are, literally, impregnated with the sweet odours that rise from the orange and lemon blossoms; and the air is alto-

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gether so pure and salubrious, that a one more healthy or agreeable cannot be found any where. Nature, which seems to droop and languish in every other climate, appears, at this time, to triumph in the delights of her Egyptian abode.

The canal, by which a communication was opened between the Red sea and the Mediterranean, was first projected and begun by Sesostris, continued by his successors Nechio and Darius, and completed by Ptolemy Philadelphus, who contrived sluices by which it might be shut or opened, as there was occasion. Its breadth was one hundred cubits, its length fifty leagues, and its depth sufficient to bear the largest vessels. It was formerly of great service to the trade of Egypt, but it is now almost filled up, and scarcely any remains of it are to be seen.

The lower Egypt extends from Heptanomis to the Mediterranean, and contains not only the Delta, but also the cities of Mareotis and Alexandria.

The last named of these was, formerly, reckoned next to Rome for the grandeur of its buildings, and richness of its materials. It received its name from Alexander the Great, who caused it to be built; and, after his decease, it was chosen by the Ptolemies for the place of their residence, by which means it became the metropolis of Egypt. The ancients assert, that it occupied about fifteen miles. The royal palace, which constituted a fifth part of the city, was erected in a most delightful situation by the sea side, and contained, besides the royal apartments, a grand museum, and the sepulchre* of the kings.

Near Alexandria was the city of Nicopolis, greatly embellished by Augustus, after the defeat of Antony; and at the distance of one hundred and twenty stadia was Canopus.

That part of lower Egypt, which is called the Delta, is said to have contained several famous cities, of which we

* The body of Alexander was deposited in this place, and here it was viewed by the emperor Augustus, who scattered flowers over it with the most lively marks of veneration, and honoured it with a crown of gold.

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enumerate, Sais, Butus, Leontopolis, and Tanis, formerly honoured by the residence of the Pharaohs. The Delta is now said to contain three hundred and sixty villages, it yields a variety of fruit in so great abundance, that when a scarcity is experienced in other parts of the kingdom, the Delta is crowned with an exuberant produce.

Of the other cities of lower Egypt, we shall only notice Bubastus, Babylon, Pelusium, and Heliopolis, or the city of the sun, where a magnificent temple was erected to the great luminary of heaven, and where particular worship was paid to a bull, under the name of Menevis.

When we consider the proximity of Egypt to the tropic, we may naturally suppose that the climate must be extremely warm. The air is generally dry in the upper part of the kingdom; yet some refreshing dews descend for several months, after the swelling of the Nile, and rain is frequently seen in the lower Egypt during the winter. The first summer, which is in March, April, and May, is rather sickly and unwholesome, on account of the parching winds and excessive heats which then prevail; but in June, July, and August, which constitute the second Egyptian summer, as also in autumn and winter, the air is serene, the weather settled, and the country altogether paradisaical.

Their government was always monarchical; but it appears that, from the earliest times, they took wise precautions to prevent the power of one alone from being hurtful. The education of a king was not entrusted to his parents. The presumptive heir to the crown was, from his birth, confided to the priests, who were well instructed in religion and the laws. He was attended only by young men of approved manners; no slave, nor any persons of suspicious character might approach him. By religious exercises, by examples, and by the daily recital of the consequences of noble or base actions, the idea was inculcated in him, of a God rewarding virtue and punishing vice. His employments were appointed for every hour of the day; the form of his habits prescribed; the time for the repetition of his exercises fixed; and the dishes of his table regulated, both with respect to

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quality and quantity. Far from finding themselves disagreeably restrained by the severity of these regulations, many of the kings of Egypt acknowledged, that they owed to them their vigour and health of body. The monarch, while he lived, was reverenced as a God, but at his death submitted to the lot of other mortals. The whole people sat in judgment over him at the entrance of his sepulchre; and, after a scrupulous examination, if his good actions did not outweigh his bad ones, he was disgracefully deprived of the rites of sepulture.

The kingdom was divided into provinces, each of which had its governor; and the lands distributed between the king, the priests, and the soldiers, who formed the three principal orders.

The priests attracted veneration by their knowledge and their virtues. They wore a habit of distinction, had a seat in the council of state, when the Egyptians elected a king, not of the class of priests, he was initiated into their order, before he was enthroned. The priesthood was, no doubt, hereditary, since the Egyptians were obliged to follow the profession of their fathers, even if they were soldiers. The latter, like the priests, let out their lands to cultivators, and received a rent. The skill of the Egyptian husbandmen has always been celebrated, both in tillage and the management and breeding of cattle. They still practice their ancient method of hatching eggs in ovens, and thus rapidly multiply their poultry.

Their first care in the choice of judges was, that they should be of irreproachable morals. The members of the first tribunal of the nation, in number thirty, were taken from the principal cities; because it was supposed, that they would possess more knowledge and information. They chose their president, who, as a mark of his dignity, wore, suspended from his neck, the image of Truth ornamented with diamonds. They were paid by the king. Causes were pleaded by the parties in person. The plaintiff presented his complaint in writing, a copy of which was given to the defendant, who returned his answer. The plaintiff replied,

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and the defendant, if necessary, rejoined; after which the judge, without speaking a word, turned the image of Truth towards the party in whose favour he decided. No advocates were permitted; their eloquence, subtlety and habit of disguising the truth rendered them suspected. In general, the Egyptians chose rather to judge by written, than parole evidence, because the difference in facility of expression, might give to one of the parties a superiority, unfriendly to impartial justice.

Their laws have been acknowledged to be so wise, that even distant nations came to learn and adopt them; and the wisdom of the Egyptians became proverbial. But in the objects of their worship, they were so infatuated, as to prove the insufficiency, even of cultivated reason, in matters of religion. They descended so low, as to pay divine honour to leeks and onions.

The Egyptians worshipped a number of divinities, the principal of which were the sun and moon, under the names of Isis and Osiris. They likewise assigned gods to preside over all the elements. Vulcan over fire, Ceres over the earth, Ocean over the sea, and Minerva over the air; they placed Jupiter, the spirit and vivifying power, in heaven. They supposed the stars to be animated by other subaltern gods, or by the souls of heroes.

From worshipping the emblematic figures of animals, it was not a very wide step to the worship of the animals themselves; and this step the Egyptians soon made. The attention, care, and precaution, with which they chose and fed the ox Apis, are well known. There was not a single town which had not its peculiar deified animal; a cat, dog, wolf, hog, crocodile, serpent, bird or fish, for which large buildings, aviaries, or ponds were provided, according to their several natures, and priests appointed to attend them. But strange to tell, the animal which was adored in one town, was sacrificed in another. Hence arose mortal enmities among the inhabitants of the same country. It is said, that these enmities were excited and encouraged by the policy of one of their kings, who perceiving that his subjects

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were naturally inclined to sedition, ordered that each town and province should worship a particular animal. The Egyptians being thus divided into distinct societies, prejudiced against their neighbours, on account of their different objects of religious worship, and mutually ridiculing and despising each other, because of the diversity of their customs, could not, without great difficulty, be brought to unite, so as to cause any serious disturbance in the state.

Though the objects of divine worship among the Egyptians were ridiculous, yet it is certain that nothing could exceed the seriousness, solemnity, and scrupulous exactness with which they performed their religious ceremonies. They offered sacrifices, and sometimes of human beings. Their service was pompous, and their festivals lively and splendid. Like other nations, they had their oracles. Their temples and idols shone with the most sumptuous ornaments, and were enriched by daily offerings. On viewing this magnificence, it must have been difficult to believe, that the object of it could have been a brute or a vegetable. But the human mind appears to be capable of the most opposite extremes. Among the Egyptians, we find the wisest civil institutions, in conjunction with ridiculous superstitions bordering on frenzy. Such is man when left to himself.*

* "Perhaps few people were more superstitious than the Egyptians. Almost every production of nature was an object of their religious worship; the sun, moon, planets, stars, the river Nile, animals of all sorts, from the human being to the monkey, dog, cat, and ibis, and even the onions and leeks which grew in their gardens. Jupiter was adored by them under the form of a ram; Apollo under the form of a crow; Bacchus under that of a goat, and Juno under that of a heifer. The reason why the Egyptians worshipped those animals is given by Eusebius, viz. that when the giants made war on the Gods, they were obliged to take refuge in Egypt, and assume shapes or disguise themselves, under different kinds of animals, in order to escape. Jupiter hid himself in the body of a ram, Apollo in that of a crow, Bacchus in a goat, Diana in a cat, Juno in a white heifer, Venus in a fish, and Mercury in the bird ibis, all which is summed up by Ovid in the following lines:

Duxque gregis, fit Jupiter—
Delius in Corvo, proles Semeleia, Capro,
Fele soror Phœbi, nivea Satumia vaccâ,
Pisce Venus latuit, Cyllenius ibidis alis. *Metam.* lv. l. 326.

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Education among the Egyptians was confided to their priests, who taught them religion, geometry, arithmetic, reading and writing, especially to the youth, who were designed for trade. They were early accustomed to moderation by not being permitted to eat of viands prepared by too refined cookery. The Egyptians wore but few clothes, and walked barefoot. They were taught from their youth to reverence old age. They made cleanliness a duty, and gratitude a point of honour. In some districts, the women carried on trade, and were employed in business without doors; while the men spun and managed the household affairs. We still find among them several habits, which elsewhere are peculiar to one sex, transferred to the other.

They were perhaps the first who taught the doctrine of the immortality of the soul, in the metempsychosis. It passes, said they, from one body into another and even into the bodies of animals; but these transmigrations do not commence until after the corruption of the carcase, on which account, they were so attentive to its preservation. They spared neither labour nor expense, in the construction of their sepulchres.

Their funeral ceremonies began by the mourning of the women, which consisted in loud lamentations, and frantic cries. The embalmer was then sent for, who, according to the price allowed him, employed spices of greater or less value, and performed his work with more or less exactness. To such perfection was the art of embalming carried in Egypt, that the body was not in the least disfigured. The hair, even of the eyebrows and eyelids, suffered no alteration, and the features were so perfectly preserved, that the persons might be recognized. The embalmers prepared the body, delivered it to the relations, who put it in a wooden coffin, and placed it in an upright position, either in

These animals, therefore, became sacred to them on account of the deities, who, as fable reports, had taken refuge in them. Others suppose, that the reason why the Egyptians would not sacrifice or kill those creatures was, their belief in the doctrine of the metempsychosis or transmigration of souls; for they feared lest, in killing an animal, they should kill a relative or a friend. This doctrine is still held by the Hindoos."—*Dr. Adam Clarke.*

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a sepulchre or in one of their own apartments; for many of the Egyptians kept their dead at home, esteeming it a great pleasure to behold the lineaments of their ancestors in this state of preservation. Some authors have asserted that they occasionally brought the corpse of a friend, as a guest to their entertainments.

When the body was properly prepared, a public notice was given of the day when it was to pass the lake, previous to its interment. At the appointed time, about forty judges assembled, and seated themselves on a certain place beyond the lake, which, in all probability, was that of Moeris. The vessel, whose pilot, in the Egyptian tongue was called Charon, being drawn up to the shore, every person was at liberty to accuse the deceased before the coffin was suffered to embark. If an accuser appeared and established his assertions, the judges passed sentence accordingly, and refused to grant the customary burial; but if no accusation was brought forward, the relations, laying aside their sorrow, began to recite the praises of the deceased. These praises were followed by the plaudits of the assistants, and the body was honourably deposited in its destined place.

Egypt was the great academy of the earlier ages of the world. To it the sages of Greece and other countries repaired, and drank largely from its fountains of knowledge. These facts are obvious, both from sacred and profane historians, the former assuring us, that "Moses was learned in all the wisdom of the Egyptians," and mentioning to the praise of Solomon, that this wisdom excelled all the wisdom of Egypt, and the latter universally allowing this nation to have been the parent of all philosophical knowledge.

Geometry is universally believed to have been first discovered in Egypt; and is supposed to have resulted from the frequent selling out and measuring those lands, that were annually disturbed by the inundation of the Nile. Yet it seems improbable that the Egyptians should have made any great improvement in this science, as Pythagoras, after his return from Egypt, offered a hecatomb on his finding out the proportion of the longest side of a right angled tri-

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angle to the other two; and Thales, who had studied geometry among the Egyptians, sacrificed an ox to the gods, in consequence of his having discovered a method of inscribing a right angled triangle within a circle.

Arithmetic, on account of its great and general utility, was diligently cultivated in this famous country.

Astronomy is regarded as an invention of the Egyptians, who, by reason of the flatness of their country, and the peculiar serenity of their air, might observe the motion of the celestial bodies with great facility.

It is certain, that this nation first adjusted the length of the year to the annual revolution of the sun, by adding five additional days and six hours to their twelve months of thirty days each. But their knowledge of the theory of the planetary motions was very imperfect; for Thales was the first mortal, who ventured to predict an eclipse, and the reduction of the motion of the heavenly bodies into tables and hypotheses, was first effected by Eudoxus and Ptolemy.

The science of medicine is generally ascribed to the invention of Esculapius, which name was given to Josothrus,* king of Memphis, for his great skill in that art.

The physicians, spoken of in the inspired narration of Moses, were, most probably, rather embalmers than physicians; unless we suppose both arts to have been originally practised by the same person, which might have been the case in the time of the patriarch Joseph; though, in latter ages, one set of medical men applied themselves to chirurgical operations, while another prescribed solely for internal distempers. The human body was parcelled out among different physicians, the diseases of the head, teeth, eyes, and of some other parts, were differently assigned to different practitioners. This regulation might naturally have been expected to produce many important improvements in their several provinces; but every prospect of future discoveries was obviated by the laws, which obliged the physicians to

* This prince was much more ancient than the Grecian Esculapius.

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conform their prescriptions exactly to certain receipts* contained in the sacred registers which had been collected and approved by the most eminent men of the profession. The Egyptian physicians had a public provision from the legislature, and were therefore expected to afford the best assistance to military invalids or travellers, without any pecuniary reward.

The science, for which this nation was particularly famous, was magic; but it was not peculiar to them. Its professors were the priests, and sacred scribes, two of whom, named Jannes and Jambres, were selected by Pharoah to withstand the Jewish lawgiver. They either performed real miracles by divine permission, or exhibited some extraordinary instances of the power of enchantment, deception or legerdemain, though they were at length compelled to bow to the superior power of Moses, whose miracles were avowedly wrought by "the finger of God."

Commerce flourished in Egypt from the earliest times. An inland trade was carried on between the cities and provinces by means of the Nile; and foreign commerce by canals, cut through the deserts, and communicating with the Red sea,† and by the river with the Mediterranean. Egypt thus maintained the communication of the two seas. It received, by caravans, the valuable merchandize of Arabia and India, which it transmitted, with its corn, to the southern parts of Europe; at that time but indifferently supplied with grain. We find in the writings of Moses, that the Midianites and Ishmaelites traded thither so early as the time of Jacob. It is also certain that Solomon established a very considerable trade in those parts; and his trade seems to have been carried on with little interruption by the Jews, till the time of Ahaz, when it fell into the hands of the Sy-

* While the physician acted consistently with these authorised prescriptions, he was perfectly safe in every event; but if he presumed to follow his own judgment in particular, he was answerable for all consequences, and incurred a capital punishment, in case his patient died.

† This was completed, or nearly so, about 246 B. C. After a period, not known, it was so filled up as to be useless.

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rians, and afterwards devolved to the Tyrians, till it was completely restored to the Egyptians by the Ptolemies.

The Egyptian language is indisputably one of the most ancient in the world, and in all probability an original tongue. This was the Coptic, and is still preserved and spoken by a few. The native Egyptians, now, almost universally, speak the Arabic, but their predecessors changed a great part of their language, as often as they changed their masters.

No part of ancient history is more uncertain or abstruse, than that of the first Egyptian monarchs. This nation, fondly conceited of its antiquity, deemed it glorious to lose itself in an abyss of countless ages, as if desirous of carrying its pretensions backward to eternity. According to the account of its own historians, gods and demi-gods governed it successively, through a series of twenty thousand years. But the absurdity of such an assertion is sufficiently obvious.

To gods and heroes succeeded mortals, as sovereigns of Egypt, of whom Manetho has left us thirty dynasties or principalities, which (if allowed to be successive) make up a series of time of more than five thousand three hundred years before the reign of Alexander the Great; but this is evidently erroneous. Much labour has been used by the literati in attempting to clear up these difficulties; but it is now generally supposed, that the kings of these dynasties did not reign successively, but many of them at the same time, and in different parts of Egypt.

Menes is universally acknowledged by historians as the first king who swayed the Egyptian sceptre. In this time the greatest part of the country was a morass, till he diverted the course of the Nile, and founded the city of Memphis within the ancient bed of that river.

Herodotus informs us, that the Egyptians had a catalogue of three hundred and thirty monarchs, extending from Menes to Moeris, and that nothing worthy notice was recorded of any of them, except an Ethiopian woman, named Nitocris; but Diodorus affirms, that the family of

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Menes, successively filled the throne, for the space of fourteen hundred years.

It is matter of no less regret than wonder, that the history of the most learned and celebrated nation of the ancient world is almost as imperfect as that of the most barbarous tribes.

In whatever age of the world the foundation of the monarchy by Menes may be fixed, from that epoch till the reign of Sesostris, the history of Egypt is involved in impenetrable obscurity. In this dark period is placed the invasion and conquest of the country by the Arabian or shepherd kings, on which so much learned research has been wasted. In the midst of this chaos, however, five princes, Busiris II., Osymandes, Uchareus, Egyptus, and Moeris are distinguished. Egyptus perpetuated his name by communicating it to the country. The others are famous in history for their magnificent works of public utility and ornament.

Busiris is said, by Diodorus Siculus, to have built, or at least to have greatly enlarged Thebes, the primitive residence of the Egyptian monarchs. This city, which was afterwards named by the Greeks Diospolis, or the city of Jupiter, is described as being seventeen miles and a half in circuit. If nothing remained of this far famed city, the accounts given of it by the ancients, would appear incredible. But, after the lapse of so long a succession of ages, its stupendous ruins, even at this day, attest its ancient grandeur.

Uchareus is, by Diodorus Siculus, represented as the founder of Memphis, but Herodotus ascribes its foundation to Menes. It is said by ancient writers to have been eighteen miles in circuit. Among its principal ornaments was the magnificent temple of Vulcan.

The name of Moeris is distinguished by one of the most stupendous works of the ancient Egyptians. In his reign, the lake Moeris is said to have been, by an astonishing effort of labour, excavated for a reservoir to receive the superabundant water of the Nile, in the time of a copious inundation; and to retain them, for the purpose of irrigat-

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ing the adjacent country, by the means of numerous canals, running in every direction.

The fame of Sesostris has eclipsed that of all his predecessors; yet such is the obscurity of Egyptian history, that chronologers are unable to fix the æra of his reign. He is, however, commonly supposed to have been the Shishak, mentioned in scripture; who, about nine hundred and seventy years before Christ, invaded Judah, and pillaged the temple and royal palace of Jerusalem.* The relations, however, which most writers have given of his exploits, are replete with exaggeration, and mixed with fiction. Some have led him from the banks of the Nile to those of the Danube and the Ganges. But whatever were their extent, he took no effectual means for their preservation, and none of them descended to his posterity. Sesostris seems indeed to have been one of those romantic warriors, who conquer only for fame. An inordinate and eccentric ambition actuated his conduct; and if he did not endeavour to retain his conquests, he was careful to perpetuate the memory of his exploits. For this purpose he erected two obelisks of one hundred and twenty feet high, with hieroglyphic inscriptions, describing the extent of his conquests, and the amount of his revenues. He caused to be erected in several of the countries, through which he passed, his own statue, armed in the Egyptian manner, with a bow in his right hand, and a belt across the breast, on which was engraved, in hieroglyphic characters, an inscription commemorative of his conquests. Herodotus, whose veracity, in regard to what he himself had seen, is now universally acknowledged, informs us, that he saw two of these statues in

* A variety of circumstances render this conjecture extremely probable. From the geographical situation of these countries, no Egyptian conqueror could make any progress in Asia, without involving the kingdom of Judah in the sweep of his operations. But the Hebrew annals give not the slightest intimation of any king of Egypt, except Shishak, ever approaching the confines of Judea, before Pharaoh Necho, in the reign of Josiah, who was slain in attempting to oppose his passage at Megiddo. This circumstance affords the strongest reason to believe, that the Shishak of the scripture could be no other than the Sesostris of profane history.

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Asia Minor. Besides building a number of temples, monuments of his piety or his ostentation, Sesostris also distinguished himself by numerous works of unquestionable utility. He caused an additional number of canals to be made, which, communicating with the Nile, and intersecting the country in a variety of directions, increased its fertility, and diffused abundance through all its districts. He surrounded the cities with ramparts, to secure them from the annual inundation, and cut navigable canals from the river, to those that were situated at a distance from its banks, in order to facilitate inland commerce. These beneficial works, performed wholly by the labour of captives, together with the influx of wealth by conquest, greatly enriched and embellished the kingdom. His name was the boast of the Egyptians, and his reign the æra of their military glory; for, excepting that period, they had scarcely ever been a conquering or martial people. Egypt considered him as the greatest of her monarchs, and his reign as the most brilliant epoch of her national annals.

At the period, now under consideration, the monarchy of the ancient Egyptians seems to have attained to the acme of its greatness. From the reign of Sesostris till six hundred and seventy B. C., Herodotus has exhibited a regular succession of kings; but their reigns are uninteresting, and their history is disguised by fables. A few particulars only, are worthy of notice. The reign of Anysis is memorable by the irruption of Sabacho, king of Ethiopia, who invaded and subjugated Egypt, but ruled with such lenity that, under his government, the kingdom flourished in prosperity and peace; and the people had reason to regard him as a benefactor, rather than a conqueror. This prince, after a long reign over Egypt, relinquished his conquest, and retired into his own country.

The reign of Sethon may be considered as a remarkable æra in the history of Egyptian superstition, as well as in that of the monarchy. This king, who had been the high priest of Vulcan, and, through the preponderating influence of the sacerdotal order, had raised himself to the throne,

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carried his despotism to a pitch beyond all example. With a desperate boldness, he seized on the lands appropriated to the soldiery, so that the whole landed property of Egypt was in the hands of himself, and the priests. Nothing can more evidently shew the unlimited influence of the priests over the nation, and at the same time the abject superstition of the soldiery and the populace. The Egyptian history is a tissue of truth and fable closely interwoven; but the whole mass of fiction and fact, of which it is composed, tends to shew how artfully, and how successfully the priests acquired and maintained their influence over the kings, the soldiery, and the people.

The reign of Sethon was the period, in which the sacerdotal power was in its meridian. Egypt then exhibited the curious spectacle of a priesthood, possessing not only the absolute sovereignty of the most flourishing country on the face of the globe, but also the entire and exclusive proprietorship of its soil. After the death of Sethon it seems that the whole order of priests could not furnish another person of equal abilities to sway the sceptre, and maintain the sacerdotal despotism. Egypt was, during some time, convulsed with anarchy, until the intestine commotions finally settled into an oligarchical government of twelve chiefs, each of whom superintended a separate district, while their joint authority extended over the whole kingdom.

The union of these oligarchs did not prove permanent, though begun in perfect concord. The cause of their discord is unknown; but its issue introduced the first luminous period that occurs in the history of Egypt. Psamneticus, one of the twelve chiefs, whose district lay next to the sea coast, having in some manner excited the envy or jealousy of his colleagues, was excluded by them from his share in the government. A civil war ensued, and Psamneticus having called in a foreign aid of Ionians, Carians, and others, made himself master of the kingdom, which he raised to a higher pitch of greatness and glory than it had ever attained, since the days of Sesostris. This revolution, which happened A. A. C. six hundred and seventy, constitutes the

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æra of the true Egyptian chronology. All, previous to that period, is wholly conjectural.

The whole history of Egypt, in those early periods, rests solely on the authority of Herodotus and Diodorus Siculus. These two writers had their information from the priests of that country, a set of men fond of allegory and fiction, and strongly tinctured with vanity. The annals of the Hebrews attest that as early as the time of the patriarch Jacob, one thousand seven hundred and five B. C., Egypt was a flourishing monarchy. In appreciating the testimony of the priests, who were the only historians as well as philosophers of the kingdoms, whatever allowances may be made for the vanity of their nation and order, it must be confessed that the stupendous monuments and ruins of the remotest antiquity, strongly corroborate their accounts of the ancient grandeur of their country.

Psamneticus cultivated with prudent assiduity the friendship of those strangers, by whose aid he had obtained possession of the kingdom, and established a colony of Greeks in the Delta, on both sides of the Nile, with schools for instructing the Egyptian youth in the Grecian language. This prince opened the ports of his kingdom to all foreigners; and, during his long reign of fifty-four years, Egypt enjoyed the benefits of a flourishing commerce. In his time happened the famous irruption of the Scythians into western Asia. By the efficacy of presents he concluded a treaty with these barbarians, by which he prevented them from visiting Egypt, and prudently diverted the storm from his dominions. In his reign, was first established a general intercourse between Egypt and Greece; and from that period, the Egyptian history, although far from becoming luminous, begins to emerge from its former obscurity.

Pharaoh Necho, son and successor of Psamneticus, was powerful by land and by sea, and being of an enterprising and warlike disposition, was the great enemy and rival of Assyria and Babylon. It is said, that in his reign, and under his auspices, was performed the famous circumnavigation of Africa by Phœnician and Egyptian mariners, who

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sailing from the Red sea, coasted round that continent, and returned by the straits of Gibraltar. This voyage, if it did actually take place, was a more arduous enterprize than the circumnavigation of the globe in modern times. It was in fighting against this prince, that Josiah, king of Judah, fell in battle at Megiddo.* Having defeated the Babylonians, and taken the city of Carchemis, Necho deposed Jehoahaz, king of Judah, and placed on the throne Eliakim, to whom he gave the name Jehoiakim, and imposed on the Jewish nation an annual tribute. Necho, however, did not long enjoy this extensive power; for, about three years afterwards, he was totally defeated by Nebuchadnezzar, king of Babylon, who recovered Carchemis, and the neighbouring provinces. The Egyptian monarch, being stripped of all his conquests, confined himself within the limits of his own kingdom, and died about eight years after his defeat by the Babylonians. Psamnis, his son, next ascended the throne; but his reign affords nothing that is worthy of historical notice. He was succeeded by his son Apries, the Pharaoh Hophra, spoken of in the scripture.

The commencement of this prince's reign was brilliant and happy; but its termination was unfortunate. He entered into a treaty with Zedekiah, king of Judah, whom he promised to support against Nebuchadnezzar. When Jerusalem was besieged, the king of Egypt marched his army into Syria; but not daring to hazard a battle with the Babylonians, he retreated into his own country, and, after this transaction, Amasis rebelled against Apries, and almost all the Egyptians favoured his revolt; while the king was supported only by his foreign troops. During the civil war, which, on this occasion, convulsed Egypt, Nebuchadnezzar, king of Babylon, having completed his conquests of Tyre and Jerusalem, entered that country, which, in its divided state, was far from being capable of resisting so warlike and powerful an invader. Profane history makes no mention of this event; and all we can gather from scripture is, that the Babylonian monarch ravaged the country, and car-

* 2 Kings, ch. 23.

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ried off an immense booty.* The usurper having vanquished Apries, and, according to the denunciation of the prophet, delivered him into the hands of those who sought his life, the unfortunate king was strangled by his rebellious subjects. Historians have assigned to Amasis, who now became sovereign of Egypt, a prosperous reign of forty-four years, and assure us, that the kingdom was never more potent and flourishing, than during this period. According to their relations he shewed a great predilection for the people and manners of Greece. He encouraged the Greeks to settle in Egypt, and to construct temples to the honour of the Grecian gods. Solon, the celebrated legislator of Athens, paid a visit to this prince, by whom he was graciously received. Amasis is said to have enriched his kingdom by trade; and, the Grecian historians assert, that Egypt never displayed greater wealth and magnificence, than during his reign. But whatever might be the prosperity of the reign of Amasis, it is certain that the glory and splendour of ancient Egypt expired with that monarch. His son Psammenitus, had no sooner ascended the throne, than the kingdom was conquered by Cambyses, king of Persia, and felt all the weight of his merciless hand. The body of Amasis was dragged from the sepulchre, torn in pieces, and reduced to ashes; and Psammenitus, the reigning king, was put to death by the command of the conqueror. Egypt, which had so long flourished in splendour, in power, and celebrity, now saw her cities pillaged, her temples prophaned, and her gods destroyed.

These violent proceedings gave rise to that inextinguishable hatred, which the Egyptian nation ever after entertained against the Persians. This implacable animosity was religious, as well as political, and was kept up by a variety of moral circumstances, which particularly distinguished the two nations. The disciples of Zoroaster despised and abhorred the idolatry of Egypt, and the Egyptians, being zealously attached to their ancient superstitions and preju-

* Jeremiah, ch. 21.

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dices, were beyond measure exasperated at the contempt, which the Persians shewed for their gods, their religion and laws. They were therefore incessantly occupied in forming schemes for throwing off so insupportable a yoke; and, in the reign of Darius Hystaspes, broke out into an open rebellion. In this they persisted till the second year of Xerxes, when they were again reduced to obedience. Wearied out with oppression, they revolted a second time, in the reign of Artaxerxes Longimanus, placed Inarus, king of Lybia, on the throne of Egypt, and called in to their aid the Athenians, the declared enemies of Persia. The Athenian fleet, attacking that of the Persians, captured and destroyed a great number of their vessels. The combined army of the Athenians, Egyptians and Lybians, also totally defeated the Persians, killed an almost incredible number, and drove the rest into Memphis. But the Persians, being hard pressed by the close pursuit of the victors, took refuge in a strongly fortified quarter; while the Egyptians remained masters of the rest of the city, and kept the Persians besieged in their fortress, during the space of three years. So long were the different quarters of the Egyptian metropolis divided between two hostile powers. Inarus, being apprised of the march of a formidable Persian army, redoubled his efforts on their fortress in Memphis; but met with so vigorous and persevering a resistance, that he was at length obliged to relinquish the enterprise, and evacuate the capital. After suffering a defeat from the Persian army, he retired into the isle of Prosopotis, which was formed by two branches of the Nile, where he in his turn had the mortification to see himself besieged. The Persians, at last, having, by means of a canal, drained that branch of the Nile in which the Athenian fleet was stationed, near the island, Inarus, with his Egyptian adherents and Grecian confederates, was obliged to surrender, on conditions, which were afterwards inhumanly violated by the Persians. Through the solicitations of the mother of Artaxerxes, Inarus was crucified, and the rest of the Egyptian and Athenian prisoners were beheaded. Such was the disastrous termi-

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nation of the war, which Inarus, king of Egypt and Lybia, undertook against Artaxerxes. The Egyptians were again reduced to subjection; but their spirit of independence was not extinguished. Amyrtæus, one of their chiefs, retired with a chosen band into the marshes, and other inaccessible situations, until the tenth year of Darius Nothus, when, a general revolt of the kingdom taking place, he issued out from his retreat, and, putting himself at the head of the patriots, expelled the Persians, and placed himself on the throne of Egypt. Those revolts of the Egyptians had been constantly favoured by the Greeks, the declared enemies of the Persian power.

Egypt, having at last thrown off the Persian yoke, was again governed by a succession of native princes, who seem to have been sometimes independent, sometimes tributary to the kings of Persia. In general, however, a hostile system subsisted between the two nations, and Egypt joined in almost every confederacy that was formed against the Persians. After thirty years of this hostile independence, during which period, the Egyptians neglected no opportunity of shewing their irreconcileable aversion to the Persians, Artaxerxes Mnemon, at last, resolved to make a grand effort for the reduction of Egypt. Achoris, who at that time swayed the sceptre of that kingdom, perceiving the impending storm, made the most vigorous preparations for averting the danger with which he was threatened. Before the commencement of the contest, however, Achoris died. The reign of Psammethis, his successor, lasted only a year. After him, Nepherotes reigned no more than a month, and Nectanebus then ascended the throne. During this time, the Persian preparations had been slowly carried forward; but, at length, their whole army, consisting of two hundred thousand Persians, and twenty thousand Greeks, entered Egypt. Since the Peloponnesian war, the Athenians had changed their system of politics, and were extremely desirous of cultivating the friendship of the great king, in order to counterbalance the power of the Lacedemonians, and the enmity of other Grecian states. They

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had, therefore, not only recalled their auxiliary troops from the Egyptian service, but sent to the Persian king the ablest of their generals to command the Greeks, whom he entertained in his pay. The differences, however, which arose between the Persian and the Athenian general, crippled their operations, and they were finally expelled from Egypt. After the lapse of twelve years, Artaxerxes, notwithstanding the miscarriage of his former attempt, made preparations for another expedition. Tachos, who had succeeded Nectanebus in the throne of that kingdom, concluded a treaty with the Lacedemonians, who sent him a powerful force, under the command of their celebrated king Agesilaus, whom the Egyptian monarch had promised to make generalissimo of his forces. But Tachos, in his first interview with Agesilaus, formed so disadvantageous an idea of that great man, that he never had any regard for his person or counsels. He expected to see a man of a noble and majestic presence, whose dress, equipage, and personal appearance should correspond with the fame of his exploits, but was disgusted, as well as surprised, when he found an old man, of a mean physiognomy, and clothed in plain apparel. This contempt for the Lacedemonian king, and consequent neglect of his counsels, caused the ruin of Tachos. Having, contrary to the advice of Agesilaus, marched to attack the Persians, in Syria, the Egyptians revolted, placed on the throne another king, of the name of Nectanebus, and expelled Tachos from the kingdom.

Nectanebus was no sooner seated on the throne, than a powerful competitor, a native Egyptian, at the head of one hundred thousand men, was ready to dispute with him the possession of the kingdom. Egypt now became the theatre of a civil war, in which Nectanebus was reduced to the last extremity. This prince had for some time been extremely jealous of Agesilaus, and even suspicious of his fidelity to his cause; but found himself, at last, obliged to confide implicitly in his counsels, and committed to him the whole conduct of the war. Agesilaus soon after defeated and made

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prisoner the rival of Nectanebus; who, in consequence of that event, was left in peaceful possession of the kingdom.

Nectanebus, afterwards, entering into a league with the Phœnicians and Cypriots against the Persians, Darius Ochus finding the operations of his lieutenants ineffectual, resolved to take the command of his army in person, and to make one powerful effort for the reduction of Egypt. The army of Nectanebus consisting of about twenty thousand Greeks and as many Lybians, with sixty thousand Egyptians, in all about one hundred thousand, was not equal to a third part of that of the Persians. From the latter, three vast bodies were detached. One of these advancing into the country every where proclaimed mercy, on condition of submission; but total extermination, in case of resistance. Darius, with the main body of the army, remained near Pelusium, in order to regulate the operations according to the events of the war. The Egyptians having made an attack on the entrenchments of Nicostratus, were defeated with great loss, and the garrison of Pelusium, on hearing of this disaster, surrendered on advantageous conditions. The Greeks and Egyptians every where submitted to Darius; and Nectanebus, who had prepared to defend Memphis, seeing the kingdom lost beyond all hopes of recovery, took refuge in Ethiopia. This conquest, which terminated the national existence, concludes the history of the ancient Egyptians, who according to the prediction of the prophet Ezekiel* have never, since this period, had any native king; but have constantly been subject to foreign rulers.

In this rapid survey of the early history of this extraordinary nation, much has been omitted, which, for centuries past, has been regularly copied by later historians, from those who preceded them.

To make history interesting, it must be considered as authentic. This authenticity is rarely to be met with in the early accounts of the Egyptians. In them facts are so frequently mixed with fable, and disguised with allegory, that

* Ezekiel, xxxiii. 13.

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we must often be contented with doubtful information, or loose conjecture. The general outlines, such as are here concisely given, are all that can merit attention; and though volumes have been written on the subject, perhaps this very short compendium comprises every thing of consequence, and all that really is or can be known of Egyptian history.

Egypt being finally reduced by Darius Ochus, B. C. 350, remained subject to the Persians, and in the most abject state of depression, until the subversion of their empire by Alexander, whom the Egyptians received as a deliverer rather than a conqueror. Pleased with their voluntary submission, he treated his new subjects with humanity and kindness; built a city there, and called it after his own name; appointed one of their own country for their civil governor; and permitted them to be governed by their own laws and customs. By these prudent measures, and the wise administration of the first Ptolemy, Egypt revived, trade and learning flourished, and for a while, peace and plenty blessed the land.

At the time of Alexander's death, Ptolemy Lagus was governor of Egypt. Alexander always shewed great attachment to him. He honoured him with particular marks of friendship, raised him to the first posts in the army, and entrusted him with the important government of Egypt. Ptolemy finding himself, at the death of the monarch of Asia, at a distance from the centre of intrigues, took advantage of his fortunate circumstances to step from the second to the first place, and to maintain himself in his new dignity.

Ptolemy is said to have declared, that he never undertook any wars, but such as were necessary, and which could not be avoided. Some of the ancient kings, his predecessors, by their monuments, seemed to wish rather to excite the admiration of the people than to promote their advantage; but the monuments of Ptolemy, while they displayed magnificence, were attended with utility. Among the chief of them is reckoned the city of Alexandria, on the border of the sea, in a situation proper for uniting within its walls, the

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commerce of Europe, Asia, and Africa. Alexander had built it with that intention, and Ptolemy, by increasing its population, riches, and magnificent buildings, rendered it the queen of the east. He constructed there the famous pharos, which became the model of so many others. It was a white marble tower of a prodigious height, on the summit of which fires were kindled, to direct mariners during the obscurity of the night. He caused the following inscription to be placed upon it: "Ptolemy to the protecting gods, for the good of those who frequent the sea."

Ptolemy employed great care in forming the famous library of Alexandria, which he increased to the number of four hundred thousand volumes, and he placed it in a superb edifice, under the inspection of several men of learning, who lodged together in a palace; where those, fond of literature, found, at all seasons, both amusement and instruction. It appears that they lived in common, at the expense of the public. They ate at the same table, and were supplied with every thing in such abundance, as to excite the jealousy and raillery of those, who were not admitted to participate with them. This was a remarkable institution, and we may say, that we are indebted to Ptolemy for societies of learned men. This library, though so numerous, had a supplement, called its daughter. The mother was consumed by accident, and the daughter was committed to the flames by the fanaticism of Omar. After he had taken Alexandria, he was intreated to save the library; but he replied, "That if these books contained the same doctrine as the Koran, they were useless, and if they contained what was contrary to it, they were dangerous." In consequence of this reasoning, he caused them to be distributed among the baths; where, for the space of six months, they served to supply the fires of those public places, which were exceedingly numerous at Alexandria.

Besides the surname of Lagus, that of Soter or Saviour, was given to Ptolemy by the Rhodians, out of gratitude for his having saved them from the fury of Demetrius Poliocertes. His own subjects might have given him epithets, no

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less honourable, had they wished to express all his noble qualities. He was mild, beneficent, and easy of access. He was desirous that the meanest person should be suffered to approach him. "They are my friends," said he, "they tell me truths, which my courtiers conceal from me." This prince showed uncommon moderation in his raillery. A grammarian, whom he had one day rallied, having returned a severe answer, all those present trembled for the unhappy man, and expected that the king would inflict upon him some signal punishment. But Ptolemy said, "A king who knows his own dignity, ought never to behave to others in such a manner as to make them be wanting in respect. I am the aggressor, he has as much right to be offended with my question, as I have to be with his answer; and, therefore, we are on an equal footing." He was fond of inviting his subjects to his table; and if, at any time, he wanted a sufficiency of plate, he borrowed from them, thus uniting economy with pleasure, the enjoyment of which is more complete, when it is not attended with the remorse of extravagance.

Ptolemy, during the forty years that he reigned, made almost an entire change in the whole face of Egypt. It had been loaded by the ancient kings, with colossal statues and gigantic monuments. These masses had been destroyed and broken to pieces. Their remains covered cities, choked up the canals, and substituted rubbish for cultivated fields. Ptolemy caused cities to emerge from these ruins; rendered the canals again navigable; restored the fields to agriculture; and, in his buildings, united the Grecian delicacy, with the Egyptian solidity. By his care, the ports on the Red sea were opened, and those of the Mediterranean became more secure. He rendered the Delta, that beautiful part of his empire, the centre of commerce; and left in a very flourishing state, a kingdom which he had found laid waste by the disorders of anarchy.

His successors, named like him, all Ptolemies, were distinguished by surnames, which expressed their virtues or vices, and sometimes their natural defects. Philadelphus,

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the lover of his brothers; Euergetes, benefactor; Philopator, lover of his father; Epiphanes, the illustrious; Philometor, the lover of his mother; Physcon, the big bellied; Lathyrus, the chickpea; Auletes, the flute player. Their spouses, who, according to the usage of the country, were for the most part their sisters, were called either Arsinoe, Berenice, or Cleopatra. It might be imagined, that these alliances, perpetuated in the family from race to race, would have been a permanent pledge of friendship and concord; but on the contrary, they produced hatred, which not only stained the throne with blood, but involved the people in frequent civil wars.

Ptolemy Soter associated with him on the throne, his second son, Philadelphus, to the prejudice of Ceraunus, the eldest. It would appear, when we consider the bad qualities of the latter, that this conduct of the father did not arise so much from predilection as from prudent foresight. Ceraunus took shelter in Macedonia with king Seleucus, by whom he was favourably received, and whom he assassinated. After this murder, he married Arsinoe, the widow, who was his own sister, and who had in her possession the capital of the kingdom. To obtain her hand, he promised to watch over her children with paternal care; but he butchered them on the very day of his marriage. Arsinoe was once more rendered a widow by the indignation of the people. It is not known whether she waited for these events before she married her brother, Philadelphus, with whom she sought refuge, after she had torn herself from the arms of Ceraunus. She was much older than Philadelphus, yet she acquired and preserved complete empire over his mind.

Soter, the son, displayed in a great measure the virtues of his father. He is celebrated for his ability in the art of governing. He regulated, with just proportion, the taxes, and his own donations. Being always in arms, though he made little use of them, he overawed his neighbours, among whom he acted as mediator and arbiter. He extended navigation; caused commerce to flourish; and attached fo-

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reigners to his states, by the privileges which he thought proper to grant them. Alexandria contained a great number of Jews, who, by being long settled there, had forgot their original language. To render their residence in Egypt more agreeable, and to make them, if possible, forget Judea, he caused the bible to be translated into Greek. This is called the Septuagint version, from the circumstance of its being completed by seventy persons. It is of high authority among Christians. In quotations from the old Testament, Christ and his apostles used this version instead of the original Hebrew. It has been lately translated into English, by Charles Rauson, of Philadelphia.

Philadelphus protected the sciences, and those by whom they were cultivated. His foresight gave him some idea of the future grandeur of the Romans. To them, he sent ambassadors, and from them, he received others in return. The latter was Quintus Fabius Gurges, Quintus Ogulinus, and Cneius Fabius Pictor. At the end of a splendid repast, the king offered to each of them a golden crown, which they accepted; but next morning they were seen placed on the statues of the monarch, which were erected in different public places. This disinterested and delicate manner of shewing their respect for the sovereign of Egypt, gave the Egyptians a high idea of the Romans. Philadelphus loaded them with presents, which he insisted they should carry with them; but when they arrived at Rome, they deposited them in the treasury of the republic. The policy of the Egyptians made him always observe strict neutrality, between the Romans and the Carthaginians. The latter having asked money from him to carry on the war against the former, he replied, "I cannot assist one friend against another."

Philadelphus is known as the founder of many cities. He erected a great number of monuments, so superb, that works of extraordinary grandeur, and built in an exquisite taste, were called Philadelphian. He maintained considerable fleets in the Mediterranean, and in the Red sea.

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This prince constructed a canal,* which joined the Red sea to the Nile, except a small interval, over which the carriage was performed by camels. By this canal the productions of Arabia, India, Persia and Ethiopia, were conveyed to Alexandria, which for seventeen centuries, carried on the greatest commerce of any city in the world. Philadelphus, though far from being warlike, always kept on foot an army of two hundred thousand infantry, forty thousand cavalry, three hundred elephants, and two thousand war chariots. He had also an arsenal containing arms for three hundred thousand men, and a treasury capable of supporting all these expenses. His troops, it is said, were badly disciplined; and, like their king, abandoned to ease and luxury. He enervated himself at an early period; and, even while young, died of old age, amidst pleasure.

The reign of his son Euergetes, began by a successful war against Syria. He brought back with him a great many idols, which Cambyses had taken from the Egyptians, and placed them again in their temples. By this act of religion, he gained the friendship of the people, and got the surname of Euergetes, the Benefactor. An inscription, still preserved, assigns to him in addition to the sovereignty of Egypt, that of Syria, Lybia, Phœnicia, Cyprus, Illyria, Caria, and the Cyclades; and makes him to have subdued Cilicia, Pamphylia, Thrace, Mesopotamia, Persia and Media, as far as Bactriana. To these, some add the two shores of the Red sea, and the provinces of Ethiopia. If this enumeration be correct, few monarchs have been so powerful.

His spouse, Berenice, when she saw him set out for his Syrian expedition, made a vow, that if he returned safe, she would consecrate to the gods her hair, which was exceedingly beautiful. He returned victorious to his kingdom; and Berenice, faithful to her vows, caused her hair to be cut off, and deposited it on the altar of Venus, in the temple, built at Alexandria by Philadelphus, in honour of

* Some represent this canal as complete; but whether it was or not is immaterial, for it has long been so filled up as to be useless.

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Arsinoe, his beloved spouse. Soon after, by some neglect of the keepers of the temple, the hair disappeared, and the king, being highly incensed, was going to punish them. Conon, however, an able astronomer, presented himself before the monarch, towards the close of the day, and said, "Raise your eyes towards the seven stars, near the tail of the dragon, and there you will behold the hair of Berenice, which was carried away, and placed in the heavens as a constellation." The king, no doubt, wished to be deceived, for a knowledge of the heavens was familiar to the Ptolemies. They were even the authors of a system of astronomy, known by their name. The courtiers, after the example of their master, seemed to be convinced of the truth of the miracle, and it was celebrated in verses by the poets. We have still remaining a hymn of Callimachus on the hair of Berenice, translated by Catullus.

Euergetes was not only a lover of the sciences, but he wrote himself historical memoirs, which were highly esteemed, and by his care the library of Alexandria was increased. In the course of his conquests, he transmitted to it every thing valuable that he met with; and, when he returned to his kingdom, he dispatched learned men into every quarter, giving them orders to procure books, let the expense be what it might. When he could not obtain curious works, but by borrowing them, he caused beautiful copies to be made of them; and sent the copies to the owners, and kept the originals.

In returning from his Syrian expedition, he passed through Jerusalem, and being desirous of seeing the Jewish ceremonies, he offered up sacrifices to the God of Israel.

The mind may have found some pleasure in reviewing these three Egyptian reigns; but the reigns which follow, will subject the reader to very different sensations. Ptolemy Philopator is suspected of having put his father to death, that he might reign the sooner. This imputation, even if ill founded, is a proof, that filial duty was not considered as his favourite virtue. If he acquired an honourable name, without deserving it, suspicions arise, that it was

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given to him only through irony. He has been branded with being attached to the most infamous debauchery. He had a brother, named Magus, who was much respected, and on that account he put him to death.

This was only the sacrifice of one man; but the destruction of a whole people was effected by the same monster. Because the high priest of the Jews had refused to suffer Ptolemy to enter the temple of Jerusalem, he resolved to avenge himself for the supposed affront on all the Jews in his dominions. They were exceedingly numerous, especially at Alexandria. By a solemn edict, he ordered them either to adore the pagan deities, or to suffer themselves to be marked with a hot iron, which would imprint on their forehead a leaf of ivy, the symbol of Bacchus. All of them, except three hundred, chose rather to suffer, than act inconsistent with their religion. Being incensed at this almost general resistance, he commanded all the Jews resident in Egypt to be brought in chains to Alexandria, where they were confined, to the number of about forty thousand, in the hippodrome, or place destined for the exhibition of horse races. Elephants were to be introduced into this place to tread them to death; and the time was fixed for the execution of this cruel sentence. The people, always fond of bloody spectacles, twice surrounded the hippodrome, and twice was the execution suspended, by Ptolemy oversleeping himself, after intoxication. Philopator considered these events as a warning from the deity, and he dismissed the unfortunate Jews, under a firm conviction, that they were indebted for their deliverance to a miracle, performed as a recompence for their fidelity. But they disgraced this noble conduct, by massacreing the three hundred, who had bowed the knee before the idols. Notwithstanding this amnesty, forty thousand Jews are reckoned to have perished in Alexandria alone.

Unfortunately, the king had in Sosibius a minister very proper to gratify his fury, whatever might be its object. Arsinoe, the wife and sister of Philopator, had followed him in his warlike expeditions, haranguing the soldiers, and

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combatting by their side. After having been barren for several years, she brought her husband a son. Her fecundity emboldened her to ask favours; but, as she became importunate, the king complained, and shewed a desire to get rid of her. As Sosibius had an official assassin, named Philammon, he detached him against the queen; and she was put to death. The female attendants of this unhappy princess, took advantage of a sedition to attack the murderer, in their turn, and they massacred him with stones and clubs.

Sosibius held the reins of government for sixty years. He was artful and corrupt, and made no scruple of committing the most horrid crimes, to accomplish his views. We are assured by the historian Polybius, that he was the cause of the murder of Lysamachus, the son of Ptolemy; of Magus, the king's brother; of Arsinoe, the daughter of Lysimachus; of Cleomenes, king of Sparta; and lastly, of queen Arsinoe. After a life marked with so much cruelty, he died in peace at a great age; a singular instance, perhaps, in history. Ptolemy led an obscure life, immersed in infamous pleasures, and abandoned his kingdom to unprincipled men, and to women void of modesty; who, in his name, distributed the civil and military employments to people like themselves. This worthless prince, either through scruples of conscience or vanity, gave away large sums in charity, and built temples. He left behind him a son, five years of age.

It appears that, after the disgrace of Sosibius, the people and nobility, had, as it were, forced the king to give the ministry to Hepolemus, who, at that time, had the care of the finances. The young prince was put into the hands of a person, named Agathocles, to be educated. As Agathoclea, the sister of Agathocles, and their mother, Oenanthe, resided in the palace, they were the first who heard of the king's death, which they concealed, till they had carried away all the gold, silver, and jewels. From being keepers of the young prince, these people wished to raise themselves to the regency of the kingdom. Agathocles appeared in public, holding the young prince in his arms, and shedding tears. He ha-

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rangued the courtiers, and implored their protection for the infant which he said had been recommended to his care, by the dying monarch. He even had the boldness to assert, that Hepolemus aspired to the throne. This calumny, however, proved unfortunate to the authors of it. The people were so incensed, that they assembled in a tumultuous manner; tore the child from the arms of Agathocles, carried him to the hippodrome, and placed him on the throne. Agathocles, Agathoclea, his sister, and Oenanthe, their mother, were brought before the child as if to be tried; and, being condemned in his name, were executed before his eyes. The populace dragged their bloody carcases through the streets of Alexandria, and tore them to pieces. All the relations and partisans of the family, were subjected to the same fate.

The Egyptian nobility were at great variance in regard to the regency. In this state of embarrassment, they thought proper to refer the matter to the Romans, and the senate did not let slip this opportunity of extending their power. They sent Marcus Lepidus to Egypt, to superintend the education of Ptolemy; but he soon resigned his charge to Aristomenes, the Acarnanian, a man of great experience. The regent governed with general approbation; and, when Ptolemy had attained his fourteenth year, the age fixed among the Egyptians for the majority of their kings, he delivered the kingdom to him, in a most flourishing condition. It is vain to enquire, why he was surnamed Epiphanes, that is, the Illustrious; for he had scarcely got the supreme authority into his hands, when he employed it in such a manner, that every thing fell into disorder. Aristomenes having presumed to give him advice, he caused him to be poisoned. His subjects revolted, and he appeased them by promises; but as soon as he had it in his power he broke his word, and put the rebels to death with the most cruel torments. The mistrust which arose from his misconduct contributed to his destruction. His courtiers often heard him speak of war, which he proposed to undertake; but as they saw no money, they asked him where he would find

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enough to defray the expenses of his intended expedition. He replied, "My friends are my money." As they understood by this, that he meant to carry on the war at their expense, they dispatched him by poison.

He left two sons, Ptolemy Philometor, and Ptolemy Physcon, with a daughter, named Cleopatra, under the tutelage of Cleopatra, their mother. This princess discharged with great honour, the duties attached to the regency. As Physcon was suspected of having hastened her death, the people rose against him, and would have destroyed him, had not Philometor taken him under his protection. He obtained this surname, on account of the love and gratitude, which he shewed towards his mother. This prince maintained an unfortunate war against the king of Syria; in the course of which, he was taken prisoner. The Alexandrians despairing of his return, caused Physcon to assume the crown. The Syrian, whose object was to subdue Egypt, carried back Philometor; restored his kingdom; and even gave him troops to oppose his brother; but he kept Pelusium, the key of Egypt, that he might be able to enter it again with the greater facility, after the two brothers should be exhausted. The deceiver, however, was deceived; they made up their quarrel, through the mediation of their sister Cleopatra, and reigned for some time in great harmony.

Concord between brothers is rare; and particularly between brothers, born to royalty. Philometor, the mildest of men, being harassed by Physcon, instead of involving his people in the horrors of a civil war, had recourse to the arbitration of the Romans. Philopator, the father of these princes, having been educated, as we may say, by the republic of Rome, had always kept up with it, a close intimacy. The presents which he sent to Rome, during the whole course of his reign, were so great and so regular, that they might be considered as tribute. Philometor went thither on foot, without any attendants; clad in a mean dress, and stopped at the house of a painter. As soon as the senate were informed of his arrival, they procured him

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a lodging, furniture and servants, suitable to his rank; sent some of their most distinguished members to visit him; and admitted him to plead his cause. The decision was attended with no difficulty. The kingdom of Egypt had always belonged to the eldest, and consequently it was proper, that it should be given entirely to Philometor. But the senate considering that Physcon had already reigned, and being still more moved by political reasons, which told them that it was for the interest of the republic, that the kingdom should not be left entirely in one hand, they adjudged Egypt to Philometor, and Cyrenaica to Physcon. The latter desired, that they would add to his share the island of Cyprus; and, in his turn, went to Rome to request that favour. As this dismemberment tended to weaken the strongest of the two brothers, it was granted.

It was not without regret, that Philometor saw himself ready to be deprived of so noble a possession. He delayed, therefore, to give it up; and temporized, with the hope of being able to keep this island, as Physcon, being otherwise employed, was not in a condition to seize it by force. His debauchery and cruelty had rendered him so odious to the inhabitants of Cyrene, that they revolted; attacked him, and left him half dead on the spot. Physcon judging of his brother by himself, believed him to be the author of the revolt; and he repaired to Rome, to complain to the senate, and to demand back Cyprus. He returned with ambassadors, who were charged to prevail on Philometor to resign his right to the island. The latter evaded giving a definitive answer; and both parties having prepared troops, the Romans suffered them to proceed to hostilities. Though Physcon was defeated and taken prisoner; his brother, always indulgent, not only restored him to liberty, but put him in possession of his kingdom of Cyrene, and gave him an indemnification for the island of Cyprus, which he kept. He then carried the war into Syria, and died of his wounds in the arms of victory.

On the death of Philometor, two parties appeared; one for Cleopatra, who wished to place on the throne a son, still

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an infant, and the other for Physcon. They, however, entered into an agreement, by which it was settled, that Physcon should marry his sister, the widow of his brother, and reign with her as long as she lived; but that the son of Philometor should be declared heir to the crown. Here the reign of Physcon in Egypt commences. We shall give a brief account of the actions of this tyrant.

Physcon married his own sister; but, on the very wedding day, he butchered his nephew, at the breast of his mother. She brought him, however, a son, whom he named Memphitis. Having already acquired the surname of Physcon or the big bellied, which denoted his deformity, he was stigmatized with that also of Kakergetes, which signifies evildoer, a title which he too well merited. He caused all those, who opposed him when he assumed the crown, to be put to death. From such a monster, this is not astonishing; but those even who had been favourable to him, were treated in the same manner; because, having been unfaithful to his nephew, they might be so to him. It is not exaggeration to say, that the streets of his two capitals, Alexandria and Cyrene, were often inundated with blood. His barbarous orders were executed by foreign soldiers, who knew nobody but him; and who being well paid, served him with blind obedience. His fear and suspicion inspired him with the most atrocious resolutions. He had done so much mischief to the city of Alexandria, that he was every moment in apprehension of some revolt. That he might deprive it, therefore, of its principal force, he caused the most distinguished part of the youth to be massacred, while they were assembled at their exercises in the hippodrome. Their fathers, mothers, and relations, fled and deserted the city in crowds. In their room, he invited thither all those, who chose to go, and put them in possession of the furniture, and every thing else, that had belonged to the fugitives; but these new citizens soon perceived, by the severity of the taxes and oppression of every kind, what confidence ought to be placed in the kindness of a villain.

The queen had a daughter by Philometor, named Cleo-

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patra, like herself. This princess was so unfortunate as to excite the affection of Physcon, who first debauched, and then married her; after he had divorced her mother. After the massacre of Alexandria, he retired to Cyprus, with his young spouse, to avoid the fury of the people; who forced the repudiated queen to resume the crown. The king, on this intelligence, thought he already saw his son Memphitis invited to Egypt by his mother, and substituted in his room. He, therefore, sent for his son in the utmost haste, and caused him to be put to death. As soon as the crime was known at Alexandria, the fury of the people against the tyrant was doubly inflamed. They loaded him with imprecations, broke to pieces his statues, and declared him excluded for ever from the throne. The Alexandrians, touched by the grief of the mother, endeavoured to alleviate her affliction by the most public testimonies of their esteem. Physcon having heard of these transports of affection towards her, and of the hatred entertained against himself, imagined that this indignation of the people, so strongly expressed, was entirely owing to his old spouse. As the birth of Cleopatra was to be celebrated exactly about this time, under pretence of being reconciled to her, the king sent her a box said to contain a rich present; but when she opened it, she found the limbs and head of her own son.

One might believe that nature had endeavoured to make Physcon a monster in every sense of the word. He was short of stature; had an excessive large belly, and enormous head; and a savage look. Though he had twice exhibited his hideous figure at Rome, the Roman ambassadors, sent to his court, could not behold him on his throne, without a mixed sentiment of astonishment and horror. The republic had charged them to visit Greece and Macedonia, which had been subjected to its government, and they were afterwards to proceed in succession, to the courts of Egypt, Syria, Pergamus, and Bythinia, to examine the state of these kingdoms. The Romans derived more than one advantage from each of these missions. Among the number of their ambassadors, there were always young persons, who were

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thus accustomed to public business. The senate, by the information they received from their report, were enabled to judge respecting the events which took place in these kingdoms, as if they had been on the spot; and to pursue the proper measures with safety and effect. These envoys, by their noble and polite behaviour, and offers of service, sometimes followed with acts of kindness, inspired a general esteem for the Roman people; and, in some measure, prepared nations for the yoke, about to be imposed on them. Physcon received the ambassadors with every mark of distinction. He, perhaps, was too fond of displaying before them his riches, and pointing out to them the beauty of his kingdom. They made a tour through it, with the curiosity of persons who had some interested view; and were convinced, that Egypt might be rendered one of the most powerful states in the world, had it been governed by a better prince.

It requires no great ability to be wicked; but those who are excessively wicked, require ability to succeed. Physcon's talents were considerable. During the short intervals, between his fits of debauchery, he cultivated the sciences, and the fine arts. It is even said that he possessed great learning, and that he could converse on every subject with the utmost ease. A history of his own time, which he wrote, was highly esteemed. He commented on Homer; increased the library of Alexandria; and shewed his generosity to men of letters, by gratifications and pensions; but, by a singular contrast, it was under his reign, that the sciences began to decline in Egypt. When they abandoned Asia, Greece, and the islands of the Archipelago, frightened by the wars of the successors of Alexander, they found an asylum under the Ptolemies. Grammarians, physicians, painters, architects, poets and philosophers, flocked to Alexandria, where a magnificent library was opened, and where a communication of knowledge was facilitated. But without liberty, these advantages become useless. Physcon, a suspicious tyrant, wished not only to enchain speech, but to overawe the thoughts. This restraint depopulated the

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academies of Alexandria, and reduced Egypt, which had been the seat of the arts and the sciences, to a state of ignorance, which has continued ever since to increase.

Physcon, that monster of cruelty, lived seventy-three years, and died a natural death, in the bosom of Alexandria, which he had inundated with blood. By Cleopatra, his niece, he had two sons, Lathyrus (Chickpea,) and Alexander, with three daughters, Cleopatra, Selene, and Tryphœna. Physcon left the throne to his widow, with the liberty of placing on it, after her, which ever of her sons she might think proper. She made choice of Alexander, the youngest, as being the easiest to govern. Lathyrus took shelter in Cyprus; but the people, discontented with the injustice of his mother, obliged her to recal him. She, however, did not suffer him to participate in the throne, until he had repudiated Cleopatra, his eldest sister, whom he loved; and married Selene, the youngest, to whom he had no attachment. But his mother thought him proper for her designs. By new intrigues, she expelled Lathyrus from the throne, and placed on it Alexander. The two brothers carried on war against each other. Alexander having discovered that his mother wished to get him assassinated, prevented her, by putting her to death. As this action disgusted the Egyptians, they drove him from the kingdom, and recalled Lathyrus. Alexander was killed, while endeavouring to return to Cyprus; and left a son, named Alexander also. In the last place, Lathyrus died, and left only one daughter, named Cleopatra, or Berenice.

Cleopatra was fond of the Jews, and had for her prime ministers, two of their nation. Lathyrus on the other hand, hated them, and it was on account of this aversion, that Cleopatra excited against her son the odium of the people, and caused him to be expelled from Egypt, by the following infernal stratagem. She prevailed on two of her eunuchs to suffer themselves to be wounded; and covered with blood, they appeared in the market place, crying out that they had been reduced to that state by defending their mistress, on whom her son had attempted to commit a rape; and, how-

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ever, much the people of Egypt were accustomed to crimes, this one excited general indignation, to which Lathyrus fell a victim.

In the war he carried on against the Jews, the following atrocious action is said to have taken place. His troops being cantoned in some villages, the inhabitants of which he suspected not to be sincere in their submission, he collected all the women and children, and caused them to be cut to pieces and boiled in cauldrons, as if he had intended to regale his army with this horrid repast. He committed this barbarity, in order to strike a terror into the people, and to prevent them from making any attempt against him. Lathyrus was as little sparing of his own subjects. On account of a revolt, which took place in Thebes, the most beautiful city of this kingdom, next to Alexandria, he rased it to the foundation. Some idea may be formed of the legitimate children of Physcon, from the following picture of his two sons; one killed his mother, and the other butchered, without distinction, his own subjects as well as foreigners. The three daughters massacred each other. One illegitimate child, named Apion, the son of Irene, a concubine, had no resemblance to his father. He confined himself to Cyrenaica, of which Physcon had made him king, and never interfered with the affairs of Egypt. This small kingdom flourished under his government. It contained five principal cities, well built, extremely populous, and all places of great trade. Near one of them, named Berenice, but which originally had been called Hesperis, lay the garden of the Hesperides, celebrated for the beauty of its fruits, and a river named Lethe. Both the garden and the river have been an abundant source of fiction for the poets. After a reign of twenty years, Apion thinking to ensure the happiness of his people, left his kingdom to the Romans; but his wish was not gratified. They took only those parts which suited their convenience, and abandoned the rest to the mercy of those tyrants, by whom it was seized. The Romans, however, had some pity on these unfortunate people, and sent Lucullus to give them a plan of government;

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who, on his arrival observed, that a people so rich as they were, could never submit to the authority of laws.

Lathyrus left only one legitimate daughter, named Cleopatra, who was placed on the throne by the Alexandrians; but she had a cousin, the son of Alexander, the brother of Lathyrus, named Alexander, like his father. When his mother, Cleopatra, was obliged to suffer the crown of Egypt to be taken from her, she sent young Alexander with a great deal of riches to Cos, an island which abounded with learned men, as being a place where he was likely to receive the best education. Mithridates, having taken Cos, carried with him the young prince and his riches to the kingdom of Pontus. Alexander seeing with what readiness Mithridates got rid of his own children, was afraid for himself, on account of his great riches. He fled for safety to the camp of Sylla, who sent him to Egypt, when intelligence was received at Rome of the death of Lathyrus. His cousin, Cleopatra, who was only seventeen years of age, had already borne the crown six months. An arrangement took place between them; and, according to the custom of their ancestors, they entered into the nuptial bond. On the nineteenth day after their marriage, Alexander put his wife to death, either because she was not agreeable to his taste, or because he was unwilling to have a spouse who possessed an equal right to the throne. This crime produced a revolt in Alexandria. Some say, that the inhabitants killed the murderer, and others, that he escaped from their hands, and reigned several years after; but that he exercised so many cruelties, and abandoned himself to so great irregularities, that his subjects expelled him.

The last opinion is the most probable. Alexander certainly survived the assassination of his wife, long enough to see himself opposed by a competitor, whom the Egyptians raised up against him. For want of a legitimate prince, they chose a bastard of Lathyrus, named Ptolemy Auletes, or the Flute Player. Alexander complained at Rome; but he died, before he knew with what success his application had been attended. He had made a will, by

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which he appointed the Roman people his heirs, not so much through affection to the republic, as a desire to occasion embarrassment to his rival. This will gave rise to violent debates in the senate. The succession was a strong temptation to the Romans; but as they had acquired Cyrenaica by the will of Apion, and Bythinia by that of Nicomedes, they were afraid that, by accepting Egypt, they should give too evident proofs of their avarice and ambition. It was, therefore, determined, that they should transport to Rome the riches deposited at Tyre; and that, in regard to the kingdom, they should suffer Auletes to be installed, without openly approving or disapproving of the measure.

The first care of this prince, was to cause himself to be acknowledged king of Egypt, by the republic. The negociation which took place on this subject, produced a very large sum to Julius Cæsar, then consul, and deeply involved in debt; and another to Pompey, whose influence was necessary to get the decision passed in the senate. By the payment of about one million sterling, Auletes obtained the title of an ally of the Roman people. Another bastard of Lathyrus, who had seized on the island of Cyprus, not being artful enough to purchase, like Auletes, the consent of the Romans, was declared, by a decree of the senate, to have forfeited all right to the throne. He requested assistance from his brother; but the latter refused, that he might not displease the Romans. The Egyptians, incensed at this servile timidity, expelled him from the throne of Egypt, and placed on it his daughter Berenice, for whom they endeavoured to find a husband capable of supporting her; but they made a bad choice. Seleucus, her nearest relation, a prince of the family of the Seleucidæ, whom they gave to her, was so ugly and disgusting, that he got the name of the Scullion. His soul corresponded to his body. He violated the tomb of Alexander the Great, and for the golden coffin, which contained his body, he substituted one of glass. He became so odious and insupportable to the queen, that she

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caused him to be strangled. He was succeeded by Archelaus, said to be the son of Mithridates the Great.

While these events were taking place in Egypt, Auletes had gone to Rome, to solicit assistance. When at Rhodes, he learned, that Cato had arrived at that island. As this was a favourable opportunity for making himself acquainted with the state of affairs, and the measures to be pursued, he sent notice to Cato that he wished to speak to him, and imagined that the Roman would readily pay him a visit. But Cato replied, "Let him come to me." When Auletes was introduced to him, he found a man plainly dressed, and with a very humble equipage. The republican received the monarch as if he had been an ordinary citizen; but listened to him with attention. When he had ended, Cato replied to the following effect. "How can you abandon the most beautiful country in the world, in order to go to Rome, where you will be exposed to the most contemptuous treatment from the great, who are as avaricious as they are factious? I must candidly tell you, that all the riches of Egypt would not be sufficient to gratify their thirst for money. You may rest assured, that a prince, who brings with him only misery and complaints, will get nothing from them; and, if you obtain a few protectors, you will find in them as many new masters. Return to Egypt, and endeavour, by a wise and moderate government, to gain the affection of your subjects, which you have lost by your imprudence." Cato offered to accompany him, and to exert all his influence with the Egyptians, to induce them to receive him. So noble and generous a resolution was not suited to Auletes. He hesitated, but continued his journey to Rome.

The Egyptian monarch reflected on the account given of the state of venality at Rome, and resolved to take advantage thereof; success exceeded his hopes. Care was taken that the arrival of Auletes at Rome should be preceded by a report of his immense riches. Pompey received him at his house with great magnificence, and the most celebrated

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of the senators, Gabinius, Bibulus, and Marcellinus, were eager to attend him. The Alexandrians having sent ambassadors to Rome to plead their cause, their orator was thrown into prison; and their chief, with several of his colleagues, was assassinated. But money was necessary to pay for all these crimes, and the king's treasures were exhausted. Recourse was then had to usurers. Pompey promoted the loans by becoming surety for the monarch, which he could indeed do without running any risk, as the money only passed through the hands of Auletes, to come at last into his own. Cæsar at this time was absent in Gaul.

This corruption was notorious; but so many people were interested in it, that no one dared to complain. Ptolemy Auletes saw himself on the point of obtaining an army, the command of which as an inexhaustible source of riches, was solicited by several of the ablest generals of the republic; among these was Pompey. Some honest men in the senate, for want of better means to oppose the measure, employed superstition. Porcius Cato opened the book of the Sybilline prophesies, and read or pretended to read the following words, "If a king of Egypt shall apply to you for succour assist him, but not with troops." This oracle entirely destroyed the hopes of Auletes, who being stripped of his riches, set out pursued by his creditors. To avoid them, he was obliged to conceal himself in an asylum. But avarice always active and vigilant, exerted itself in his favour. His partisans, at Rome, those who lent him money, and who were unwilling to lose what they had advanced, wrote to the generals of the republic, in the neighbourhood of Egypt, that the restoration of Ptolemy to the throne, would be a good stroke of policy, which would make the fortune of the person who should accomplish it. They pointed out to them the means of eluding the oracle, and of employing, in that expedition, the armies of the republic, without the fear of incurring blame. Several of them refused; but Gabinius, who commanded in Syria, undertook the affair for the sum of about two millions sterling, to be paid to him when Auletes should be seated on the

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throne. He accordingly entered Egypt, having the king in his army. His success was rapid. Pelusium was the first place that he took, and the Egyptian monarch wished to put the inhabitants to the sword, but the Roman general opposed this cruel and impolitic measure.

Archelaus, the queen's husband, who attempted to check their progress, was defeated in a general engagement, and taken prisoner. Gabinius might have immediately put an end to the war; but, in consequence of a large sum offered to him by Archelaus, he pretended that the latter had privately escaped, and then demanded a new sum from Ptolemy in order to carry on the war. Rabirius, a Roman knight, was ready in the camp to advance to the monarch on usurious interest the sum required. This was conveyed into the hands of the general. The war was then resumed with new vigour, and terminated by a battle in which Archelaus was killed.

As soon as Auletes found himself master of Alexandria, he sacrificed to his resentment his daughter Berenice, because she had dared to wear the crown during his exile; though she had done so by compulsion. He afterwards put to death all the opulent citizens, and confiscated all their property, under a pretence that they had supported the rebels. The Alexandrians, plundered and ruined, were reduced to a state of despair; but, though strongly inclined to revolt, they were overawed, as well as the other cities by the Roman soldiers, whom Gabinius had left behind him. These people, however, whom the shadow of a Roman made to tremble, when they attempted to defend their own property, became as furious as lions when a Roman soldier happened by accident to kill a cat. They tore the unhappy culprit to pieces, on the idea that he had insulted their religion.

All the extortion of Auletes was not sufficient to satisfy Rabirius. Having urged the monarch for payment, the latter replied, "I see no means of discharging the debt, unless you consent to take the management of my revenues, and thus gradually reimburse yourself from what you may

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have in your hands." Rabirius did not perceive the snare which was laid for him. From being a Roman knight, he condescended to become a tax gatherer. When he had taken upon himself responsibility, Auletes found a sufficiency of pretences for causing him to be arrested. Rabirius exclaimed against this act of injustice, and Pompey, who had been surety at Rome, seemed highly displeased with the king's conduct; but as there was little to be hoped, and every thing to be feared, from a cruel and avaricious prince, Rabirius thought himself exceedingly happy that he was suffered to escape alive from prison, and to quit Egypt. Such was the manner in which Auletes paid his debts. This was the last event of a reign of thirty years, much too long for his people, ignominious for himself, and attended with very little honour to the Romans. They indeed wished to bring to justice the two offenders, Gabinius and Rabirius, who were criminally prosecuted on their return to Rome; but the eloquence of Cicero saved Rabirius from punishment, though not from shame. Gabinius was banished; but those, by whom they had been instigated, and who gained by their dilapidations, continued to walk about Rome with their usual confidence.

Auletes had two sons, both named Ptolemy, and two daughters, Cleopatra and Arsinoe, the former of whom has been celebrated in history. He disposed of his crown in favour of his eldest son and daughter, on condition of their entering into the bonds of marriage. Cleopatra was seventeen years of age, and her brother thirteen. Auletes recommended his children to the Roman people, and begged them, in his will, to take them under their protection. The senate accepted this honourable office, and entrusted the execution of it to Pompey. The eunuch Pothinus, was appointed prime minister, and Achillas commander of the troops.

These two men were not much pleased with a queen, who not only seemed little disposed to suffer herself to be governed, but even shewed a desire of commanding. By threats or bad treatment, they obliged Cleopatra to leave

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her court. She retired to Syria and Palestine, to raise troops; and returned, boldly, to give battle to her husband and his ministers under the walls of Pelusium. While the armies were in sight of each other, Pompey, after his defeat at Pharsalia, was seen approaching the coast of Egypt, where he hoped to find an asylum. Having sent to his pupil Ptolemy, to request permission to enter his kingdom, a debate took place in the council, whether he ought to be received at the risk of offending the conqueror, or whether it would be best to put him to death, with a view of preserving the friendship of Cæsar. The latter opinion prevailed, and Pompey was assassinated. This was a base crime, and an act of ingratitude in the successor of Auletes, who had been placed by Pompey on the throne. Cæsar, who was in close pursuit of his rival, arrived at the same time at Alexandria. Achillas imagined he should do him a pleasure, by presenting to him the head of his enemy; but Cæsar turned aside his eyes with horror, and shed tears for the unfortunate fate of his illustrious competitor.

Cæsar found the whole city of Alexandria filled with the utmost indignation, on account of the murder of Pompey, and little disposed in his favour; but, by means of specious words, he was able to calm the minds of the people, without, however, forgetting his own interest; for he strictly demanded the remainder of the money still due to him by Auletes, since the time that he procured for him the title of an ally of the Roman people. Pothinus, who wished this importunate creditor at a distance, embraced that opportunity of endeavouring to render him odious. He made the exaction appear still more rigorous than it really was, by carrying away from the temples, the gold and silver contained in them, and reducing the king, and all the nobility, to the necessity of using earthern or wooden vessels, as if to insinuate, that Cæsar had seized on every thing. When the people were disposed to murmur, it was easy to prejudice them against Cæsar, on account of the order he sent to Ptolemy and Cleopatra to come and plead their cause before him, and even to disband their troops. The Alexan-

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drians were highly irritated, as they considered this order an insult to the royal authority; but Cæsar appeased them by causing to be read publicly, the will of Auletes, which gave the guardianship of his children to the republic. He said that, as dictator, he was personally charged with this office; but that he would act in no other quality than that of arbiter. The ferment of their minds was allayed by this explanation, and advocates were appointed on both sides.

Cleopatra, who placed more confidence in her attractions than in the eloquence of her advocates, privately quitted her army, and embarking in a small boat, arrived about sun set at the gates of Alexandria. The great difficulty was to enter the city without being known, as she would have been stopped by her husband's troops; and to make her way afterwards to the palace. Apollodorus, who apparently was a very robust man, wrapped her up in a mattress in such a manner as to appear like a bale of goods; took her up on his shoulder; and having passed without detection, deposited her at the feet of the judge.

Her appearing in this manner before Cæsar was of more value, in his eyes, than a triumphant entry. Ptolemy, on being informed of it, foresaw the consequences. He rushed from his palace, as if frantic, and cried out, that he was betrayed; tore the diadem from his head, and trod it under his feet. The people flocked around him, lamenting his fate, and ran to take up arms; but the Roman soldiers seized and detained the young prince, and, next morning, Cæsar not only effected a reconciliation between him and his spouse, but married Ptolemy, the youngest of their sons, who was only eleven years of age, to Arsinoe, his sister, who was a little older, and gave them the kingdom of Cyprus, a present intended only to deceive the people; for it was not to be supposed that the republic would resign its rights to that island.

This good intelligence was not of long duration. Pothinus, who had occasioned the first discord, found means to renew it, in order that he might not be punished; and that he might enjoy, in full liberty, the empire which he had

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always exercised over his pupils. He concerted with Achillas the proper measures for accomplishing what he had in view. The dictator found himself besieged, in the quarter which he occupied with the royal family; and never was this general exposed to greater danger. He had few troops to oppose, not only to a large army, but to a whole city, in a state of revolt. It was during one of the combats, which took place on this occasion, that the celebrated library of Alexandria was burnt. Pothinus, who remained near the king, sent private intelligence to Achillas of the measures he was pursuing; but his treachery being discovered, he was put to death. Ganymedes, an eunuch of the palace, to whom young Arsinoe had been entrusted, and an accomplice of Pothinus, fearing the same fate, fled to the camp of Achillas, and carried with him his ward. The Egyptians were filled with great joy, to think that they had in their army a branch of the royal family, whom they could place at their head. They proclaimed her queen, and appointed Ganymedes general, in the room of Achillas, whom they found means to put to death. This eunuch was indeed very fit to be prime minister; for we are told, by historians, that he was a man of activity, address and penetration, but of no probity.

Cæsar, with his whole army, and the court, were in danger of perishing by thirst, as Ganymedes found means to introduce the water of the sea into the cisterns of the quarter where they were pent up, and thus to corrupt the water of the Nile, which alone could be procured at Alexandria. Cæsar, however, caused wells to be dug, from which he fortunately obtained a supply of fresh water. Ganymedes made several attacks, both by land and by sea; but, after a great deal of bloodshed, the contending parties had recourse to a conference. The Alexandrians said their only wish was to recover their king, whom the dictator consented to restore. He therefore released him, after giving him some good advice, respecting the government of his kingdom, and exhorting him to put an end to the war, by a sincere reconciliation with his spouse. The young prince

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promised obedience, with tears in his eyes; but as soon as he found himself at liberty, he renewed the war with more fury than before.

Reinforcements having arrived to the Romans, from all quarters, the dictator found himself in a condition to give battle, and gained a complete victory. The young king, during his flight, was drowned in an arm of the Nile. Cæsar entered Alexandria without difficulty, replaced Cleopatra on the throne, and made her marry her young brother, who was only eleven years of age. Young Arsinoe was taken after this defeat; and Cæsar, the lover of her sister, was so cruel as to conduct her to Rome, and to lead her in triumph, having her hands bound with golden chains. He afterwards set her at liberty, but with the prohibition of never returning to Egypt. She retired to Asia, where her cruel sister put her to death. Cleopatra got rid of her young husband by poison; and she then found herself sole sovereign of Egypt. Love detained the conqueror of Pharsalia with her much longer than his interest ought to have allowed; but ambition, at length, made him break his chains. He tore himself from the arms of the enchantress, but left with her a son, called Cæsarion.

Cleopatra, after the death of Cæsar, openly espoused the party of the triumvirs. She was, however, suspected of having sent troops to Cassius. This offence, added to the complaints of her subjects, and of the neighbouring princes, made her be summoned to appear before the tribunal of Antony, who had come to Asia to establish the power of the triumvirs. She had then attained to the twenty-fifth year of her age, a period of life as fit for business as for gallantry. The attractive charms which she had received from nature were accompanied with wit, artifice, sprightliness, and the graces. The surprise she prepared for Antony had no resemblance to that which subdued Cæsar; but, though less abrupt, it was no less successful. The triumvir had established his tribunal at Tarsus, a city of Cilicia. When Cleopatra arrived at the mouth of the Cydnus, she quitted the vessel which had conveyed her hither;

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and proceeded up the river in a galley provided for the purpose. It was entirely covered with gilding, the sails were of purple, and the cordage consisted of silk. The oars were plated with silver; and the movements of the rowers were regulated by the sound of musical instruments. The air was filled with the fragrance of perfumes, burnt in great abundance; and the deck was covered with a canopy of cloth of gold, elegantly displayed and arranged with the utmost taste. Below it, appeared the queen, in a posture half reclining; and surrounded by a great many comely youths and beautiful virgins.

When this spectacle was announced, the people abandoned the tribunal of the triumvir, and hastened towards the shore. Antony sent to invite her to supper. "Tell him," replied she, with a flattering smile, "that I expect to see him in my tents." The repast was splendid; soldiers and officers, Romans and auxiliaries, were all praised and caressed, and loaded with presents in that winning manner, which renders refusal impossible. Antony, the object of the most delicate attention, was intoxicated with pleasure and admiration. No more idea was entertained of accusation or reproaches. Cleopatra assumed an absolute empire over the vanquished triumvir. Every day she invented new pleasures; and, like another Circe, supplied him with large draughts of voluptuousness, of which she had an inexhaustible cup.

After this period he saw only with her eyes, and conducted himself entirely by her counsels. As it was her desire, he placed with her on the throne of Egypt, her son Cæsarion, whom she had born to Cæsar. To that kingdom, he added Cyrenaica, the island of Cyprus, Cœlesyria, Phœnicia, and the greater part of Cilicia. To three children, whom he had by her, he assigned whole kingdoms; some also conquered, and others which he flattered himself with the hopes of subduing; but she could not prevail on him to put to death some of the kings of the states he had promised.

This distribution of empires was made after a triumph,

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in which Antony dragged at his chariot, within the walls of Alexandria, Artabazus, king of Media, together with his wife and children. He then presented them to Cleopatra, who was seated on a golden throne, raised above a scaffold, overlaid with silver. The news of this spectacle gave great offence to the inhabitants of Rome, who believed that the privilege of triumphs belonged, exclusively, to their city. This discontent was fomented by Octavius, who being informed of the bad conduct of his colleague, aimed at nothing less than to appropriate to himself the empire of the world, which they possessed in common. They had disputes concerning the limits of their respective dominions; but their friends interposed, and imagined that they should put an end to all discord, by uniting in marriage Octavia, the sister of Octavius, with Antony. This expedient, however, had a quite contrary effect, and embroiled them without the least hope of reconciliation. Cleopatra shuddered when she heard of this marriage, which was about to deprive her of a lover; and she exerted her influence so much, that he first suspended the arrival of his spouse, who was approaching, and then sent Octavia a letter of divorce, and to her brother a declaration of war.

It would have been necessary to support these violent proceedings by a sudden attack. Octavius was unprepared, while Antony had every thing in readiness; and, notwithstanding his foibles, he possessed the love of his soldiers, and the esteem of his friends; but he wasted his valuable time in luxury and enjoyment. Cleopatra possessed a great talent for varying amusements. A fishing party on the Nile, furnished her with an opportunity of employing a piece of raillery. Antony made it a point of honour, to catch the largest fish, and for that purpose had provided divers to affix them to his hook. The queen, who was equally ingenious, had divers also, and when Antony drew up his line he found at the end of it a beautiful salt fish. A general laugh disconcerted the fisherman, and when Cleopatra found that he relished the joke pretty well, she threw

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her arms around his neck and said, "Let us abandon our lines and tackle, to the kings and queens of Phasus, and Canopus. Your amusements ought to be to catch cities, kingdoms, and kings."

This prodigal and extravagant queen, in the course of one of those orgies, no doubt when reason becomes lost, having at her ears two beautiful pearls, each valued at about fifty thousand pounds sterling, pulled out one of them, which she dissolved in vinegar, and then swallowed the mixture. She was going to do the same with the other, but was stopped by one of the guests.

Such whimsical sacrifices were, no doubt, calculated to captivate the credulous lover, and to persuade him that he was more esteemed than the most valuable jewels. But whether it was owing to insinuations conveyed to him by strangers, or to his own reflexions on the perfidious character of his mistress, Antony began to shew some symptoms of suspicion. The queen, instead of amusing him with protestations, invited him to dinner; and, in a moment of playful gaiety, carelessly detached a flower from the garland with which she was crowned, and threw it into the cup of her guest. Antony seized it with eagerness, and was going to apply it to his lips; but Cleopatra stopped him, and sent for a criminal, who had been condemned to death. The criminal drank the cup and instantly expired, as the flower had been poisoned. "Were it possible for me to live without you," said the queen, "you see that I could never want the means of realizing your suspicions."

Prudence advised Antony to fly from so expert a poisoner; but passion reasoned in a different manner. This proof of fidelity, which was extremely equivocal, drew still closer the bonds of their union. Antony appeared as if incapable of enduring a moment's absence; and Cleopatra, on her part, never quitted him, day or night: she accompanied him on all his journeys to the army, and even to his tribunal, when he sat to determine causes. Being both equally misled by their presumption, they indulged in the

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most extravagant hopes. When this ambitious queen wished to add solemnity to any assertion, her usual oath was, "As I hope to give law in the capitol."

After several indecisive battles, between the lieutenants of Antony and Octavius, the two armies, which were to decide the empire of the world, met under the command of their chiefs; the naval forces, in the gulph of Ambracia, and the land forces, drawn up on the promontory of Actium. Antony was on board his fleet; and, notwithstanding the remonstrances of his captains, he had suffered himself to be accompanied by the queen of Egypt. This proved his ruin. Cleopatra, who was still a prey to remorse, seeing victory ready to favour the enemy, and fearing to fall into the hands of Octavius, whom she had grievously offended, by causing his sister to be repudiated, betook herself to flight, with her whole squadron, and decided the defeat of Antony. He might have joined his land army, and again tried his fortune, with those who had more than once made him triumph; but, through some fatal enchantment, he followed his perfidious lover. Seated in a melancholy attitude, on the poop of his vessel, supporting his head with his two hands, and, perhaps, still more occupied with her than with his own misfortunes, he swore never to see her again. But he proceeded after her, and arrived, along with her, in port. He endeavoured to confirm himself in the design he had formed of avoiding her; but the syren procured an interview, made him listen to her complaints, shed a few tears, and at last gained a complete victory over him.

They were obliged to tear themselves from the enjoyment of reconciliation, in order to collect forces against the enemy, who was approaching. Antony might have found troops had he only exerted himself. He was more beloved than Octavius, and it was with regret that the army withdrew from him that esteem which he had formerly enjoyed. Herod, king of Judea, came to offer him his services; and to see whether that soul, which in times of difficulty had displayed so much strength and magnanimity, was still susceptible of energy. But he found only lan-

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guor and weakness, with an unfortunate passion, to which Antony referred all his views and actions. All those, whose assistance Antony solicited, his old friends and commanders, judged like Herod, and abandoned him to his fate. He then saw no other recourse left, but to return to Egypt; where the queen had at her command, ships, soldiers, and treasures. "I will employ these," said he, but I will neither see her nor speak to her." Antony took up his lodging without the city of Alexandria, in an agreeable country seat which he had caused to be built on the sea shore. Messages passed between him and Cleopatra; but their common interest made it afterwards necessary for them to have several interviews. The object of them was to deliberate on treating with Octavius, who was then advancing against them. After various proposals, which were rejected, Antony confined himself to a request that the conqueror would suffer him to live at Athens, as a plain individual along with the queen; and that he would ensure to the children, whom he had by her, the thrones which he destined for them. Octavius gave only equivocal answers, as his object was to get the lovers into his power. While he advanced, he still continued to negotiate without neglecting the means of force or surprize; and Antony, amused by his hopes, was in great danger of falling into the snares laid for him. Like an enraged animal pursued to its last retreat, he then threw himself with fury on those who wished to surround him, repulsed them, and occasioned dreadful slaughter. Besides the negotiation carried on in common, Cleopatra entered into a private one with Octavius, who insinuated that she ought to abandon Antony, and perhaps to give him up. On this condition he promised her every advantage she could desire. In the meantime he demanded, sometimes, one city, and sometimes another, and at last, the most important places of Egypt; while the queen, deceived or seduced, delivered them into his hands. Incensed at this treachery, Antony wished to sacrifice his perfidious lover; but she retired to a monument of great height, which she had built, where

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she shut herself up with two female attendants and a slave. She then sent to inform her lover that she had put herself to death. Unable to endure the idea of existing without the object of his affection; he sent for a slave on whose fidelity he could depend, and putting into his hands a poniard said, "You behold me for the last time,—strike." But the slave plunged the poniard into his own body, and expired at his feet. Antony took the poniard in his turn, and having given himself a large wound, fell down bathed in blood. His friends hastened to his relief; but he conjured them to dispatch him. They were filled with horror and pity, and left him in the agonies of death near the body of his slave.

Cleopatra having heard of his desperate state, and that he was not dead, sent her slave to inform him that she was still alive, and wished to see him. On this invitation the dying lover seemed to revive, and suffering his wound to be dressed, ordered himself to be conveyed to the monument. As Cleopatra durst not open the door for fear of being surprised by the emissaries of Octavius, she let down ropes to which Antony being made fast, was in that manner, drawn up to a window by the queen and her two female attendants. The lamentation and mournful cries, which were afterwards heard, informed the Alexandrians, who arrived in crowds to behold this spectacle, that the unfortunate Antony had survived a very short time, the pleasure of seeing, once more, the object of his affection.

The queen obstinately persisted in her resolution of remaining in the monument to which she had caused combustible matter, spices, and precious wood to be conveyed, in order to burn herself in it, if any violence should be attempted. She wished to procure the crown for her children; and dreaded, more than death, the idea of being attached to the car of Octavius, and dragged in triumph to Rome. To obtain the one, and avoid the other, she considered it necessary to remain mistress of her asylum. She suffered no person to enter it, and conversed with the mes-

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sengers sent by Octavius only through the door; but while one of the negotiators was engaging her attention with proposals, another got in the window, through which Antony had been drawn up. Finding herself surprised, she snatched a poniard from her girdle, and attempted to stab herself; but the weapon was taken from her, and proper precautions were employed to prevent the effects of her despair.

She then requested permission to see Octavius. He came to visit her in person. She received him, laying on a couch, in a careless manner. Upon his entering the apartment, she rose up to prostrate herself before him. She was dressed in a loose robe; her hair was dishevelled; her voice trembling; her complexion pale, and her eyes red with weeping. Yet still her natural beauty seemed to gleam through the distresses with which she was encompassed; the graces of her motion and the alluring softness of her looks, still bore testimony to the former power of her charms. Octavius raised her with his usual complaisance, and desiring her to sit, placed himself beside her. Cleopatra had been prepared for this interview, and made use of every method she could think of to propitiate the conqueror. She alternately employed apologies, entreaties, and allurements, to obtain his favour, and soften his resentment. She talked of Cæsar's humanity to those in distress; she read some of his letters to her full of tenderness; and enlarged upon the long intimacy that had passed between them. "But of what service," cried she, "are now all his benefits to me. Why could I not die with him. Yet he still lives; methinks I see him still before me; he revives in you."

To her arguments, her importunity, and her solicitations, Octavius answered with a cold indifference, scarcely venturing to meet her eyes; but when she intimated, as he supposed, a desire of life, he was highly pleased, and assured her, that she should be indulged to the height of her expectations. He then took leave and departed, imagining he had reconciled her to life, and that he should have the glory of leading her as a captive in his triumph, on his return to Rome; but in this he was deceived. Cleopatra, all

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the while, had kept a correspondence with Dolabella, a young Roman of high birth, in the camp of Octavius, who seems to have felt deeply for her misfortunes. From him she learnt the intentions of Octavius, and that he was determined to send her off in three days, together with her children to Rome. She now saw what was intended for her, and determined to prevent its execution, by a voluntary death; but previously entreated permission to pay her last oblations at Antony's tomb. This request being granted her, she crowned the tomb with garlands of flowers, and, having kissed the coffin a thousand times, returned home to execute her fatal resolution. She attired herself in the most splendid manner, then feasted as usual, and soon after ordered all, but her two attendants to leave the room. Having previously ordered an asp to be secretly conveyed to her in a basket of fruit, she sent a letter to Octavius, informing him of her fatal purpose, and desiring to be buried in the same tomb with Antony. Octavius, upon receiving this letter, instantly despatched messengers to prevent her design, but they arrived too late. Upon entering the chamber, they beheld Cleopatra lying dead upon a gilded couch, arrayed in her royal robes. Near her, one of her faithful attendants was stretched lifeless at the feet of her mistress. Another immediately after fell down dead at her side.

There are some circumstances in the death of Cleopatra, that interest our affections, contrary to the dictates of our reason. She died at the age of thirty-nine, after having reigned twenty-two years, and with her, ended the monarchy of Egypt, which had flourished for immemorial ages. Throughout life, she was distinguished for her beauty, wit, and wickedness; and was nearly in all equally pre-eminent.

Octavius was much chagrined, at being thus deprived of a principal ornament in his intended triumph. However, her dying request was complied with, her body being laid by Antony's, and a magnificent funeral prepared for her and her two faithful attendants.

From this time, Egypt was governed as a province of Rome, and few occurrences present themselves for the his-

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torian to narrate. Commotions, wars, and political intrigues, are, indeed, the chief materials of history. During those intervals, in which mankind have known most quiet, there is little that deserves to be recorded. Like a level plain, the smooth tenor of life exhibits nothing to arrest attention. This, with a few exceptions, was the case with Egypt, for nearly seven centuries after the death of Cleopatra. It continued a Roman province, from that period till it was subdued by the Arabians, A. D. 641. Egypt was one of the most potent kingdoms that had risen out of the fragments of Alexander's dominions; and the last existing portion of that mighty empire, which the Greeks had erected on the ruins of Persia. Alexandria was, after the fall of Carthage, the greatest commercial city in the world; and, after its subjection to the Roman dominion, it still maintained that rank, being the great mart of Indian trade. Famed for learning and philosophy, not less than for commerce and wealth, Alexandria rivalled Rome and Athens, in the number and celebrity of her schools, and her learned men. The inhabitants, however, retained their seditious character, and the same proneness to revolt, that distinguished them under their native princes. The seditions of Alexandria often affected the tranquillity and subsistence of Rome, of which Egypt and Sicily were the two granaries. In one of these revolts, Alexandria supported a siege of eight months, against the emperor Dioclesian, who, having rendered his camp impregnable to the sallies of the besieged, and cut off all their supplies of water from the Nile, at last reduced the city, by blockade, and almost wasted it by fire and sword. But Alexandria, from its commercial situation, commanding the trade between Europe and India, had always the good fortune to retrieve, in a short time, its misfortunes. After the fall of the western empire, Egypt remained a valuable appendage to the eastern. Of this Alexandria was the second city, being, in extent, magnificence, wealth and population, next to Constantinople, and the principal granary of that metropolis, as it had formerly been of Rome. After Christianity had made a considera-

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ble progress in Egypt, the schools of Alexandria were not less celebrated for the abstruse speculations of theology, than for philosophical studies. In this city were born or educated, many of the most learned fathers of the church, as well as a multitude of theologians, whom orthodoxy has denominated heretics. A very considerable proportion of the theological controversies, which so violently agitated the church, during the third and fourth centuries, originated in the seminaries of this city, and Alexandria was equal, if not superior, to Constantinople itself, as a distinguished theatre of civil and religious factions.* These, however, were not productive of any important revolutions, till religious persecution drove them to favour the Saracen invasion. The history of this great event comes in the order of time.

Egypt remained as a province of the Greek empire, till the first half of the seventh century was nearly elapsed. It then underwent a revolution, as important and extraordinary as any that it had ever experienced. About this time, Amrou, one of the lieutenants of the caliph Omar, marched to the conquest of Egypt. The forces with which he undertook this great enterprise are said to have been about four thousand Arabs. Pelusium was his first acquisition, From thence he proceeded to Memphis, which, although in a declining state, was still a place of such strength, as to arrest the progress of the conquerors, during a siege of seven months. Having received a reinforcement of four thousand Arabians, with battering engines, from Syria, Amrou, at length, carried the city by assault. The small army of the Saracens, however, would have been totally inadequate to the conquest of Egypt, had not the people been alienated from the government of Heraclius, by that virulence of religious persecution, which is always calculated to convert subjects into rebels. The polemical con-

* Clemens Alexandrinus, Origen, Arius, and a multitude of other Christian theologians, both orthodox and heterodox, were natives of Alexandria, or pupils of the Alexandrian schools.

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troversy of monothelitism, or the dispute concerning the existence of one or two wills in Christ—in other words, whether the divine and human wills were united in his person, had produced a general disaffection. The emperor considered and treated his Egyptian subjects as heretics; while they, on the contrary, regarded him, not as the protector, but as the prosecutor of Christianity.

Such are the revolutions of opinions, that the Egyptians were not less attached to their monothelitism than their ancestors, ten centuries before, were to the worship of the god Apis. At the period of the Saracen invasion, the Greeks, who persecuted them on account of a Christian controversy, were not less detested than the Persians, who sacrilegiously feasted on the flesh of the sacred bull, had formerly been. The disaffection of the Egyptians to their government promoted the designs of Amrou as much as they had before advanced those of Alexander. The Copts unanimously favoured the Saracen invasion, and swore allegiance to the caliph, who required only obedience and tribute, as the price of religious liberty and protection. The Greeks, whose numbers were scarcely equal to one-tenth of the native Egyptians, were overwhelmed in the general defection. They retreated from the upper Egypt, and the Saracens advanced to Alexandria, which was then abundantly replenished with the means of subsistence and defence. The native Egyptians attached themselves with ardour to the service of Amrou. Strong reinforcements arrived in his camp. The tribes of the desert, and the veterans from Syria flocked to his standard; and the merit of a holy war was recommended by the value of the prize. On the other hand a numerous population, fighting for religion and property, made a resolute defence. The almost daily sallies of the Alexandrians, were constantly repulsed by the besiegers, who, in their turn, made incessant attacks. At length, in the year 640, after a siege of fourteen months, and the loss of about twenty-three thousand men, the Saracens made themselves masters of Alexandria, perhaps the most difficult, but, without doubt, the most valuable of their

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conquests. The Greeks were at that time masters of the sea; and if Heraclius had been animated with the same spirit as in the Persian war, fresh armies, pouring in from Europe, might have saved the capital of Egypt. In the succeeding reign the clamours of the people of Constantinople, (of which this country had been lately the granary, as formerly of Rome) compelled the court to attempt the recovery of Alexandria. The Byzantine fleets and armies twice occupied the place, but were as often expelled by the valour and conduct of Amrou; who, thrice made himself master of the capital of Egypt, before the conquest was confirmed.*

Egypt being now completely subjugated, the Arabians proceeded to secure and improve their conquest. Under the prudent administration of Amrou, the canals and dykes were annually repaired. The fertility of Egypt, supplied the barrenness of Arabia, and strings of camels, loaded with corn and provisions, covered almost the whole length of the road, from Memphis to Medina. The plans of inland navigation, which had been attempted or executed by the Pharoahs, the Ptolemies, and the Cæsars, were revived by the genius of Amrou; and a canal was opened from the Nile to the Red sea. Of the state of the country, in regard to its population and opulence at this period, some sketch might here be expected, but the wild exaggerations of writers who make the number of inhabitants amount to twenty millions, and the revenues of the caliphs to three hundred millions, and other equally extravagant calcula-

* The destruction of the Alexandrian library is said to have been the consequence of these successes. The evidence of this fact rests on the sole authority of Abulpharagius, who says, that this magnificent literary monument of the reigns of the Ptolemies, was destroyed by the command of Omar, who assigned as a reason for this procedure, "that if the books agreed with the Koran they were useless, and need not be preserved, but if they disagreed, they were pernicious, and ought to be destroyed." Mr. Gibbon, the historian, deduces from ancient writers, strong presumptive proofs, that only the fragments of that famous collection existed at the time of the Saracen invasion.

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tions, contrary to the more sober estimates of ancient and modern times, are not worthy of being repeated.

From the Arabian conquest, the history of Egypt becomes less interesting. The subjugation of the northern parts of Africa, and afterwards of Spain, followed in succession; and gave to the empire of the caliphs, a greater extent than either the Persians, the Macedonians, or the Romans, had ever possessed. But this enormous empire, like most others of a similar origin and construction, after being agitated by numerous revolts and violent commotions, at last split asunder, and formed itself into separate, and often hostile states. About the year eight hundred, under the caliphate of the famous Harun-al-Rashid, Africa was erected into an independent empire by its viceroy, Ibraim-ben-Aghleb, who maintained himself in his revolt, and transmitted the sceptre to his posterity. Zindet, his successor, subjugated Sicily; but the conquest of that valuable island does not appear to have been secured till eight hundred and seventy-seven, when the great commercial city of Syracuse was taken, after a siege of nine months, and all the inhabitants put to the sword. In it the conquerors found an immense booty. This dynasty ruled over eastern Africa from Egypt to Morocco, till nine hundred and eight, when Obeid-Ullah, usurped the sovereign authority. This prince having expelled Zindet Ullah, the last of the Aglabites, founded the Fatimite dynasty. This family, which had arisen among the Arabs of Egypt, pretended to deduce its origin from Fatima, the daughter of Mahomet, and wife of Ali. Abul Cassim, his son, made an attempt to add Egypt to his dominions, and actually made himself master of Alexandria. But his armies being totally defeated by those of the caliph of Bagdad, his design was frustrated. Aber Tummin, one of his successors, was more fortunate. He sent a formidable army into Egypt, under the command of Jeahar, a Greek, who succeeded in making a conquest of the country. This general is said to have laid the foundation of Cairo, to which he gave the name of Kahira, or the victorious, by

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which it is yet called by the Arabs. Aber Tummin fixed his residence at Cairo, which he made the capital of his kingdom. Thus was Egypt wrested from the caliphs of Bagdad, about three hundred years after it was conquered by Amrou. It was now erected into an independent caliphate, and Dahir, the fourth caliph, made himself master of Aleppo. But he has soon after obliged to abandon it; and, in the reign of his successor, most of the Egyptian possessions in Syria were lost. In the year one thousand and ninety-eight, the Egyptian caliph Mostali, conquered Jerusalem from the Turks; but that city was captured soon after by Godfrey, earl of Boulogne. The dynasty of the Fatimites terminated in Aded, who died in one thousand one hundred and seventy-one, and Salah-ed-din, the famous Saladin of the Christian writers, a Kurd by nation, and a soldier of fortune, having usurped the sovereignty, assumed the title of sultan of Egypt. This monarch, having formed the design of adding Syria to his empire, proved a terrible enemy to the crusaders. In one thousand one hundred and seventy-seven, he was defeated by Raimond de Chatillon; but five years afterwards, he captured Aleppo. In one thousand one hundred and eighty-seven, he gained a decisive victory over the Christians, and in the same year made himself master of Jerusalem. The crusaders, however, having, after a siege of two years, captured Akka or Acre, the ancient Ptolemais, Salah-ed-din, concluded a truce with Richard I. king of England. By this treaty, the Christians were left in possession of Acre and Jaffa, almost the only remains of their conquests in the east. Salah-ed-din died in one thousand one hundred and ninety-three, in the fifty-eighth year of his age, and the twenty-second of a glorious reign. Although this great prince left sixteen sons, his posterity was soon hurled from the throne, which, about seven years after his death, was usurped by Adel-sief-ed-din his brother. Under the successors of this prince, the crusaders made several attempts on Egypt. In one thousand two hundred and forty-nine, St. Louis, king of France, seized on Damieta; but, in the following year, he, with his

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whole army of about twenty thousand men, was captured by the sultan Turan Shah. In 1250, Turan was massacred by the Mamalukes, who placed on the throne a youth of the royal line, but afterwards usurped the sovereignty for themselves. These Mamalukes were originally Turkish slaves, whom Malek the father of Turan Shah had purchased from the Tartars of Kaptchak. Of these he had formed a guard, and had advanced many of them to the highest employments. This military corps established an elective monarchy, and raised one of their own officers to the throne, a system to which they ever after adhered. They are stiled, in history, the Baharite Mamalukes, from having been employed as mariners on board the sultan's fleet. The reigns of those sovereigns were generally short, and most of them fell by assassination. They performed considerable feats of arms; finally expelled the Christians from Syria; and, during several reigns, contested the possession of that country with the successors of Tschinghis Khan, when the Mongolian empire was in the full career of its conquests. The last of the Baharite sultans was Haddi Salah, who being a minor, was deposed by Barkuk Dahir, his atabek or governor. Barkuk having seized the throne, founded the dynasty of the Borgite Mamalukes, in 1389. These were Circassian slaves, who had been purchased by the Baharite sultans, and were in number about twelve thousand. They derived their name from the word borge, which signified a tower, because their residence was in the castle of Cairo, where they kept guard, and went through their education. Being favoured by the sultans, they rose to the first dignities, engrossed all the powers of government; and having supplanted the Baharite or Turkish Mamalukes, succeeded to their empire. The system of government, however, continued the same; the sceptre was transferred to the hands, not of a different class, but only a different race of men. Barkuk, the first sultan of this line, having twice defeated the troops of the victorious Timour or Tamerlane, had the honour of checking the progress of the Monguls, in Syria. In the year 1442, the Mamaluke sultan of Egypt, conquered

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Cyprus, took its king, and most of its nobility prisoners; and rendered the kingdom tributary. Nothing further of any great importance occurred, till the beginning of the sixteenth century, when the Mamaluke and Ottoman powers came into contact. In 1516, the sultan Kansu-el Guiri, being defeated and slain in battle by Selim II. emperor of the Turks, Syria was annexed to the Ottoman empire, after having so long been an appendage to the Mamaluke kingdom of Egypt. Toman Bey was elected sultan by the Mamalukes, but his reign proved of short duration. Selim II. undertook, in the following year, his grand expedition against Egypt, having first made immense preparations for ensuring success. The Mamalukes, on their side, were not neglectful in providing the means of defence. The contest was arduous and bloody. Toman Bey displayed the talents of a general; but being defeated by Selim, in two decisive engagements, he was made prisoner, and hanged at one of the gates of Cairo in 1517, after a reign of about one year. Thus ended the singular monarchy of the Mamalukes in Egypt, which, during the space of two hundred and sixty-three years, had exhibited the extraordinary political phænomenon of a small body of military slaves ruling an extensive, populous, and powerful kingdom.

Though the monarchy of the Mamalukes was abolished, their aristocracy was, for political reasons, retained; and this military body subsisted without any alteration. A convention was made with the Ottoman emperor, who confirmed to the Mamalukes their former privileges, on conditions of allegiance and tribute, and also of acknowledging the spiritual jurisdiction of the mufti of Constantinople. The power of the beys has of late almost entirely set aside that of the porte. Egypt, strictly speaking, during a great part of the last century, has been a military aristocratical republic, acknowledging a merely nominal allegiance to the Ottoman emperor. Since that period, Egypt presented no memorable occurrence till 1770, when Ali Bey, taking advantage of the distressed situation of the porte, in the

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Russian war, threw off its yoke, assumed independence, conquered the adjacent coasts of Arabia, with a great part of Syria; and seemed about to revive the empire of the great Salah-ed-din. His conduct and views tended to render Egypt once more the seat of commerce and wealth. The assistance of a small foreign force would have enabled him to execute all his designs. His flattering prospects were blasted by the treachery of his brother-in-law, Mohammed Abuhadab. His troops were defeated, and he himself mortally wounded. Mohammed Abuhadab received from the porte the office of sheik-el-bellet, or governing bey, which he held during the remainder of his life. Egypt was, for some time, convulsed with civil wars among the beys, but in 1785, the contending parties came to an accommodation. With the exception of the French invasion, in 1798, the country has ever since remained in the quiet possession of the Ottoman porte.

Egypt has retained its name through many revolutions, and a long succession of ages. This country was the asylum, the scourge, and the tempter of the primitive church. To it Abraham, the father of the faithful, and his grandson, Jacob, with his patriarchal family, retired, and found a supply of their pressing wants. In it their numerous posterity groaned, for a long series of years, under cruel bondage, and from it they were miraculously delivered. This was the country where the children of Israel were, in a measure, born and bred. They were much perverted by their education, and ever after retained a fondness for the idols of Egypt. Several of the laws and institutions of Moses were plainly calculated to wean them from, and to guard them against, the manners and customs of the Egyptians. This was the more necessary, for, in their hearts and affections, they were much inclined to return into Egypt. Solomon married his wife from thence. Upon all occasions, they courted the friendship and alliance of Egypt, rather than of any of the neighbouring powers. This prepossession was the more extraordinary, as the Egyptians generally treated them with great injustice.

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After they had oppressed them with the most cruel servitude, they gave them leave to depart; but, at the same time, pursued them as fugitives. Shishak, king of Egypt, came up against Jerusalem, 1 Kings, xiv. 25, 26, and plundered it. And, in all their leagues and alliances, Egypt was to them as a broken reed. Isa. xxxvi. 6, "whereon if a man lean, it will go into his hand, and pierce it." In Egypt, the infant Saviour, with his mother, found an asylum from the blood-thirsty Herod. On all these accounts, we might expect that Egypt would be frequently noticed, in the sacred records of the Jews. The event corresponds with this reasonable expectation. It has also been the subject of several prophecies.

There is a remarkable prophecy of Ezekiel,* which comprehends the fate of Egypt, from the days of Nebuchadnezzar to the present time, in the following words: "It shall be the basest of the kingdoms, neither shall it exalt itself any more above the nations; for I will diminish them, that they shall no more rule over the nations:" and again, in the next chapter, verses 12, 13, "I will sell the land into the hand of the wicked, and I will make the land waste, and all that is therein, by the hand of strangers; and there shall be no more a prince of the land of Egypt."

The truth of Ezekiel's prediction is fully attested, by the whole subsequent history of Egypt. In the year 589 B. C., the date of Ezekiel's prophecies, who could pretend to say, upon human conjecture, that so great a kingdom, so rich and fertile a country, should ever afterwards become tributary, and subject to strangers. It is now above two thousand years, since this prophecy was first delivered, and what likelihood or appearance was there, that the Egyptians should, for so many ages, bow under a foreign yoke, and never, in all that time, be able to recover their liberties, and have a prince of their own to reign over them. But, as is the prophecy, so has been the event: for, not long afterwards, Egypt was conquered by the Babylonians; and, after the Babylonians, by the Persians; and, after the Per-

* xxix. 15.

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sians, it became subject to the Macedonians; and, after the Macedonians, to the Romans; and, after the Romans, to the Saracens; and then to the Mamalukes; and is now a province of the Ottoman empire.

The last prominent event, in the history of Egypt, is the invasion thereof by the French. On the first of July, 1798, general Bonaparte, one of the most daring and successful commanders that modern times have produced, landed on the coast of Egypt, with a formidable veteran army, consisting of forty thousand men, besides an immense quantity of artillery and military stores; and immediately made preparations for commencing an attack on the once celebrated city of Alexandria. Having summoned the city to surrender, which was disregarded, he commenced the attack, on the fifth of July, and, in a few hours, carried it by assault, with the loss of only one colonel, and seventy soldiers, a city that, in the sixth century, sustained a siege of fourteen months, and inflicted a loss of twenty-three thousand men upon the besiegers. Having thus obtained possession of Alexandria, he successively subdued Cairo, Rosetta, &c.; but this uninterrupted success was somewhat obscured, by intelligence received of the total destruction of the French fleet, by the English admiral, Nelson, in the bay of Aboukir. Shut out from all communication with France, in consequence of this fatal disaster, general Bonaparte proceeded in the reduction of Egypt, but found it a more difficult task than he expected; for the Mamalukes, by their dexterity in the use of the scimitar, and the management of their horses, proved an equal match for the veteran troops of the old continent. The plague, however, having broken out in the French army, was more destructive than battle; and so great was the terror, even of the bravest, that Desegnettes, the physician at the head of the French medical staff, inoculated himself with the distemper, in the face of the army; thus affecting to contemn the disease which he could not subdue. Grand Cairo exhibited, at this period, a scene of alacrity and industry, to which it had been unaccustomed. Bonaparte, to soften the rigours of war, and

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compensate, in some measure, for the miseries he had inflicted on the inhabitants, having first established a strict discipline among his troops, and taken measures to have the markets well supplied with provisions, from the Delta, he introduced many of the improvements of civilization. For this purpose, he first established a public library; then a chemical laboratory; hydraulic machines, for the purposes of civilized life, were constructed, and wind-mills, for grinding corn, hitherto unknown to the inhabitants, were erected. Literature and the sciences were cultivated, and learned societies formed, after the model of the French institute. Commerce, also, became the object of his care: the merchants were protected, and the imposts, levied on all commodities, were fixed and certain. The religious prejudices of the natives were also flattered, by the respect paid by Bonaparte to the doctrines of Ismalism, and the ministers of that religion; so much so, as to procure for him the appellation of Ali! The Copts and Greeks, also, emerged from their obscurity, under the protecting auspices of the general. Schools were established, as in Europe, for the instruction of their children, and marriages between the French and the natives were encouraged. Numbers of them were, also, enlisted into the French army, to supply the loss, occasioned by sickness and the sword. For the first time, since the days of Mahomet, a divan was formed of Musselman representatives, which were also established in each of the fourteen provinces of Egypt. That at Cairo was presided over by Abdallah Keykaori, an Arabian prince. But, notwithstanding all this parade of disinterested concern for the happiness and welfare of the Turks, their deep-rooted animosity to the invaders could not be overcome; and the grand seignior having issued a firman against the infidels, the city of Cairo revolted; and it was not until after a most sanguinary contest, that the insurrection was quelled. While Bonaparte was thus engaged at Cairo, Desaix and Regnier, two French generals, were employed, one in upper Egypt, in expelling the Mamalukes from that quarter, and the other

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in Syria, in the reduction of the strong fort of El Arish, where he was joined by Bonaparte, who, immediately on his arrival, gave orders for one of the towers to be cannonaded, and, at the same time, summoned the place to surrender; which, after some time spent in negotiation, was consented to, and the garrison allowed to retire to Bagdad.

The French army then proceeded towards Gaza, where they arrived on the twenty-eighth of February, having experienced, during their march through the deserts, all the horrors of extreme thirst.

Gaza having surrendered, without opposition, they found in it a large supply of military stores and provisions, which enabled them to direct their march for Jaffa, the Joppa of ancient days.

Having taken possession of Jaffa, and established as was customary with him, in every place of importance which he occupied, a divan, he proceeded on to Acre.

Thus far had success universally attended the arms of Bonaparte; and the rapidity of his conquests had given him sanguine hopes of being able ultimately to establish the ascendency of France in Egypt; but he was destined to experience a reverse of fortune, little expected, by an occurrence which created no small degree of chagrin and astonishment in the French army.

St. Jean D'Acre, so celebrated at the time of the crusades, was, at this moment, defended by two men whose achievements entitle them to an equal degree of celebrity with its ancient defenders, and who combined the most heroic courage with a consummate knowledge of the modern art of war. These were Sir Sidney Smith, a distinguished British naval officer, and Col. Phillipeaux, an emigrant officer of Engineers, and a school fellow and early companion of Bonaparte.

Under the able conduct of these men, St. Jean D'Acre, resisted all the efforts of military skill and determined courage of the French army. From the seventeenth of March, to the ninth of May, no less than nine attempts to storm had been made, and as often failed, notwithstanding that the

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French made frequent lodgments on the ramparts, and their flag was frequently seen to wave on the outer angle of the tower. The despair of the inhabitants animated them to oppose the most determined resistance. The garrison had been long expecting a reinforcement, which, however, did not arrive until the fifty-first day of the siege. This was the signal for a vigorous attack on the part of the French, who hoped to get possession of the town previous to the disembarkation of the reinforcements. Accordingly, on the next morning, the ninth of May, the French commander in chief, having during the preceding night made a lodgment on the second story of the north-east tower, where the French troops had intrenched themselves with two traverses across the ditch, composed of sand bags, with the bodies of their dead, built in with them, continued to carry on his operations with every appearance of success. Already had a breach been effected, when, at this critical moment, Sir Sidney, having by unexampled energy, succeeded in landing the troops, placed himself at their head, and marched up to the breach, each man being armed with a pike. A heap of ruins served as a breast work for both, the muzzles of their muskets, and the spear heads touched, and but for the presence and heroic example of their leader, the Turks must have fallen a sacrifice to the insatiable fury of their enemies. A sortie was made from the garden of the Seraglio, (to which place the pacha D'Jezzar had reluctantly admitted the troops,) on the enemy's third parallel or nearest trench, which obliged the French to expose themselves to the flanking fire of the garrison, and eventually caused the destruction of all that remained. A new breach was, however, effected, the fire of the besiegers bringing down whole sheets of the wall at a time. Bonaparte was, at this time, on the Mount of Richard Cœur de Lions, surrounded by his generals, and aid-de-camps, indicating by his gestures a renewal of the attack. A little before sunset, a massive column appeared advancing in solemn step. The breach, no longer defended by the advice of the pacha, was mounted by this column, who descended into the garden, where

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great numbers were decapitated by the Turkish soldiers; the survivors were obliged to retreat as expeditiously as possible, and general Lannes was severely wounded in endeavouring to encourage his men.

One effort more was made by the French commander in chief, but proved equally unsuccessful with the former; the French soldiers absolutely refusing to mount the breach, over the dead bodies of their comrades. On the night of the seventeenth, the French army began to remove the sick, the wounded, and the park of artillery; and, on the twenty-first, the *generale* was beat, and the siege, after sixty days continuance, was raised; leaving behind them all their heavy artillery, which afterwards fell into the hands of the English.

Various insurrections having broken out in Egypt, the utmost vigilance on the part of the French generals, could scarcely preserve the public tranquillity. But that which bore the most threatening aspect, was headed by an impostor, who announced himself to be the angel El Mahdi, whose coming is mentioned in the Koran, and who asserted that the troops who should fight under his standard, would be both invulnerable and invincible. Having collected a number of followers, he marched from Rahmanie to Damenhour; where, being met by a column of French, under the command of general Lannes, his followers were defeated, fifteen hundred of them put to the sword, and himself wounded.

The last battle in which Bonaparte commanded in person, was that of Aboukir, against a Turkish army, consisting of about eighteen thousand men, under the command of Mustapha Pacha, who had lately arrived on the coast from Constantinople, and disembarking, had intrenched himself on the peninsula. The success of this engagement was so complete, that scarcely an individual remained of the whole Turkish army, and their whole park of artillery, &c. fell into the hands of Bonaparte.

During the whole of this time, the British fleet had so closely blockaded the coast, that no communication respect-

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ing the affairs of Europe had reached him. Astonished at receiving intelligence, through the intervention of the enemy, of a new war, as well as its disastrous consequences, he determined to return to France, and to heal her distracted councils, by elevating himself to empire. Leaving therefore a sealed packet, addressed to general Kleber, whom he appointed to the command of the army, he embarked with several of his favourite generals, and some Mamalukes for his personal guards, and his usual fortune attending him, arrived at Paris, on the sixteenth of October.

The French were finally expelled from Egypt, by a British army under the command of the veteran general Abercrombie, who was killed at the close of the engagement, and the Turks once more left in quiet possession of the country.*

* For a more particular account of the war in Egypt, see History of the wars of the French Revolution.

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CARTHAGE,

Was situated near the spot where Tunis now stands, and was more ancient than Rome by thirty, or, as others say, one hundred, or one hundred and forty years. It is agreed by all, that the Phœnicians were its founders, under the conduct of Dido or Eliza, who flying from the avarice and cruelty of her brother Pygmalion, king of Tyre, landed on the coast of Africa, with a body of faithful adherents.

It is probable she might find a few inhabitants in the place, whom its local advantages had induced to settle there; but to her Carthage is indebted for a regular foundation, and the establishment of its future greatness. Its progress, however, was gradual; and its early history, like that of most other states, is involved in obscurity. Successive additions raised it to a rank with the most celebrated cities on earth.

At the period of its greatest splendour, Carthage was surrounded by a triple wall, flanked, at intervals of four hundred and eighty feet, by towers. Between the walls, under arcades, were stables sufficiently large for the reception of three hundred elephants, and four thousand horses, together with all things necessary for their maintenance. Twenty thousand foot soldiers were also provided with lodgings in the same place. There were two different harbours established, the one for commerce, the other for vessels of war, of which, as many as two hundred and twenty might find separate accommodations at once. Beautiful parapets, and arsenals for military stores, were placed round these ports. The city of Carthage itself, occupying the space of twenty-three miles in circumference, was built on four eminences, on the highest of which stood the citadel, rendered strong from surrounding outworks, and also from the advantages of a favourable situation. We may easily imagine how numerous and magnificent were the temples and public buildings in a town containing seven hundred

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thousand inhabitants, endowed with the sovereignty of the sea for six centuries, and, consequently, enjoying the commerce of the known world. Yet of all this grandeur not a wreck remains; and the once omnipotent city of Carthage, now lies buried under the ruins of its own walls. The casual appearance of drains and reservoirs are the only objects, which can now lead to the discovery of its original position, and identify its site.

At one period the Carthaginians were possessed of the greater part of Spain, Sicily, and the islands of the Mediterranean, in addition to numerous establishments which they had formed, for the support and extension of their trade with other countries. Their own immediate territory, however, consisted in what now forms the kingdom of Tunis, which was once a city in the Carthaginian domain. Utica was reckoned second in point of size and population, and next to this ranked Hippo. Other cities bordered on the coast, or appeared in the more inland parts of the country, in great numbers. They were chiefly situated on lakes, which frequently occur in this quarter of Africa. For the support of these establishments, all spots of the burning circumjacent sands, that would admit of cultivation, became the objects of their most assiduous care. But with all their industry and perseverance, they could only fertilise a narrow strip along the edges of lakes, and the inconsiderable rivers of this district. In exception to this general rule, the soil, on which Carthage stood, produced the most abundant harvests of every kind of grain.

Monarchy is supposed to have been the original government of Carthage; neither is it known, at what period it assumed the form of a republic. It is, however, generally allowed, that the republic consisted of the people, a very numerous senate, and two suffetes or presiding magistrates. These suffetes, corresponded in rank and power, with the consuls at Rome, and kings at Lacedæmon; but were not, like the latter, chosen for life. They were elected from amongst the richest of the citizens, that they might be the better able to support their dignity with splendour.

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When the votes of the senate were unanimous, they possessed the power of giving laws, from which there was no appeal. But, when the suffrages were divided, or when the suffetes stood alone, the decision was referred to the people, who then gave the final decree. "Hence," says Polybius, "arose the misfortunes of Carthage, since, in the last Punic wars, the judgment of the people, misled by their orators, prevailed over the wiser dictates of the senate." There were, likewise, two other tribunals; but their purport or authority is merely conjectural. These were the centumviri, or council of a hundred, chosen from amongst the senators, and the quinqueviri, or council of five, elected from the members of the centumvirate. It is probable that the centumvirate discussed and suggested matters to the senate, and that the quinquevirate presided over all, even the suffetes themselves. But whatever were the powers of these various orders, their regulations appear generally to have been guided by wisdom and discretion; since the history of the republic was, for a long period, unsullied either by sedition, the insubordination of the people, or oppression on the part of their leaders.

The barbarous custom of sacrificing infants to a god, supposed to be Saturn, was a long time prevalent in Carthage. These victims were selected from the first families, their mothers being constrained to assist in the execution of their offspring; and, in proportion, as they suppressed the acute feelings of maternal affection, they obtained the esteem and applause of the surrounding populace. The number of two hundred were immolated to this sanguinary deity at once, in times of any particular distress. They reverently worshipped nearly all the Egyptian, Greek, Roman, and Phœnician gods. Neither were they exempt from other absurd superstitions derived from these nations, such as holding up female prostitution as an act of piety, and practising it, even in their temples, the profits being appropriated as the woman's portion. Yet we cannot imagine that a practice, so disgusting to decency and morality, could have been general. But even this is not more peru-

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liar than other customs well known to have been in force at Carthage; some wholly harmless, while others again, were attended with the most baneful consequences. None, but the condemned, were allowed to be the messengers of any public or private calamity; it being supposed, that the herald of any bad news would meet with a speedy death. On this supposition, criminals were reserved, expressly for that purpose. When the city was threatened with any great misfortune, the walls were immediately hung with black; during a campaign, soldiers were denied the use of wine, and magistrates, during their office, were subject to the same restriction. The officers and soldiers wore a ring for each campaign, in which they had served. On the return of a general from an unsuccessful expedition, though he were free from the imputation of any blame or neglect, he was put to death; yet, notwithstanding this inhuman severity, their army was never in want of a commander. The Carthaginians possessed the most implicit faith in oracular divinations. They were accused by the Romans of obduracy, and even ferocity; and, according to them, their sole object was the amassing of riches. But it ought to be considered that this character was given by their most inveterate enemies. Whatever may have been the general character of this people, it is certain there might be found amongst them, men of the most distinguished generosity, as well as heroic bravery.

From the few existing remains of the Punic language, it appears to have been of Phœnician origin. By the introduction of words from various other tongues, with which the commerce of the Carthaginians rendered them familiar, their language was afterwards considerably enriched. In Malta, many of its idioms are still retained; and the Celtic is said to bear a near affinity to it. Their written characters were partly composed of the Phœnician, and partly of the Hebrew. Much encouragement, certainly, was not given by the Carthaginians to the promotion of the sciences; yet it would be unjust to affirm, that they treated them with neglect. Not only the archives of this people,

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but all their literary and historical works were destroyed by the Romans; an act which strongly evinces a mean jealousy, lest the fame of this nation should rival their own.

The Romans formed soldiers from the surrounding nations, as intrepid as themselves; but the Carthaginians were obliged to hire distant mercenaries, who could not be supposed to possess that innate patriotism and zeal, which natives feel in the defence of their country. Notwithstanding these obstacles, the commanders, who were universally Carthaginians, inspired their armies with that energy, which alone can give a probability of success. Yet, after all, from the too great mixture of nations, they could never equal the discipline, nor attain the tactics of the Romans. Their mariners, inured to hardships by long voyages, were alike brave and experienced; yet, the inconvenience which weakened their armies, had also the same effect on their navy. The number of foreign auxiliaries was far greater than that of the Carthaginian sailors. On this sole account, their most able admirals often met with signal defeats. Their knowledge of naval tactics may be conceived, from their long voyages of discovery, as well as of trade. Under Himilco, they explored the western coast of Europe, under Hanno, they made the circuit of Africa, and beheld the isles of Britain. There were many others, who made excursions of greater or less extent in the establishment of their extensive commerce; but their names are unknown.

The Carthaginians appear to have exported from the produce of their own country, wheat, fruits of every kind, wax, honey, oil, and skins of beasts. The chief manufacture consisted in the materials, necessary for the equipment of vessels; they are supposed to have been the inventors of galleys with four rows of oars, and also of large cables. From Egypt they obtained fine hemp, paper, and wheat; from the coasts of the Red sea, spices, aromatics, gold, pearls, and precious stones; and, from Tyre and Phœnicia, they procured purple and scarlet, rich stuffs, and tapestry. Returning from the western coasts, to which they carried

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their different commodities for sale, they brought back to the east, iron, tin, lead, and brass. They seem to have reaped the greatest emolument from their traffic with the Persians, Garamantes, and Ethiopians. This commerce was conducted by means of caravans, and was esteemed highly honourable, even in the leading members of the state. They had a peculiar method of carrying on their trade with the Lybians, the manner of which was a convincing proof of their mutual integrity. When the Carthaginians reached their shores, they unloaded their merchandizes, and placed them on an eminence, at the same time raising a thick smoke, in order to apprise the Lybians of their arrival. These immediately repaired to the spot, where the goods were deposited; and having placed a certain quantity of gold near it, they retreated to a great distance. If, on the return of the Carthaginians, they considered the sum adequate to the value of their commodities, they accepted it, and immediately set sail. On the other hand, if they did not conceive the money to be sufficient, they again retired to their vessels, without taking any thing with them; and when the Lybians found that the bargain was not accepted, they increased the sum, till such time, as it was thought proportionate to the value of the merchandize. Neither of these people attempted to take improper advantages over the other, although they had such repeated opportunities.

Dido, whom we have already mentioned as the undoubted founder of Carthage, appears, when she landed on the African coast, not only to have been young and beautiful, but equally subtle and courageous; neither is she less celebrated for her wisdom. On her arrival, she is reported to have demanded only as much ground as an ox's hide would encompass. This request being granted, she cut the skin into narrow strips, and, by that means, encircled a large extent of territory, on which she built the citadel called Byrsa. The Carthaginians, however, annually paid a tribute to the Africans, for the territory they thus possessed.

The new city soon became populous and flourishing, by

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the accession of the neighbouring Africans, who were first attracted by a view of traffic. Nor was the stratagem, by which they expanded their domain, less singular than the means by which they obtained their first footing. On the Cyreneans complaining of the advantages they had taken, in respect to territory, it was agreed, between Cyrene and Carthage, that two commissaries from each should set off at an appointed hour, and that the spot on which they met should be the boundary between the two nations. Two brothers, named Philæni, were deputed by Carthage, who, making use of their most strenuous exertions, met the deputies of Cyrene much nearer their city than they expected. They, therefore, complained of being surprised; accused the Carthaginians of having set off before the time appointed, and therefore demanded that the agreement should be cancelled. "Suggest, then," said the Philæni, "any other mode of decision, and we will submit to your proposals." To which the Cyreneans answered, "Either immediately retire, and yield the advantages you have gained, or suffer yourselves to be buried alive, and your tomb shall serve as a boundary." Their proposals were accepted by these heroic brothers, who underwent the most dreadful death imaginable, in order to secure the extension of territory they had gained for their country—an action by no means unworthy of comparison with that of Curtius, who, for the sake of Rome, precipitated himself into the gulf.

In the early history of Carthage, there is a chasm of three hundred years, owing to the destruction of the Punic archives by the Romans. It, however, appears, that from their very outset, the inhabitants applied themselves to naval tactics, and were the objects of terror, during the reign of Cyrus and Cambyses. Their principal revenue was derived from the mines in Spain, in which country they appear to have established themselves very early. From the riches drawn out of these mines, they were enabled to equip the most formidable armaments. It is intimated by Justin, that the first Carthaginian settlement, in Spain, was made when the city of Gades, now called Cadiz,

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was in its infancy. The Spaniards, finding this new colony begin to flourish, attacked it with a numerous army, and obliged the colonists to implore the assistance of the mother country; which being granted, the Spaniards were not only repulsed, but compelled to yield the whole province, in which their new city stood. Encouraged by this success, the Carthaginians attempted the conquest of the whole country, but failed.

Having made some successful maritime expeditions, and having obtained considerable advantages in Sicily, they turned their arms against Sardinia. But this enterprise proved abortive; and, losing half their forces on the spot, they banished the remaining portion of their army, together with their commander, Machæus. Feeling hurt by this disgrace, he invested the city with the companions of his exile. Owing to those divisions, which involved in fierce contention the nearest relations, the attention due to Machæus was neglected, on his soliciting, that he and his fellow-soldiers might be restored to their former stations. The besieged, however, finding themselves hard pressed, sent proposals of peace to Machæus, through the medium of his son Catalo, who was in the opposite party. These were rejected; and the cruel father ordered a cross to be erected, and his son to be fastened to it. The town afterwards surrendering, Machæus condemned those senators to death, who had taken an active part towards his banishment; but, at length, he was killed, in attempting to assume the sovereign power.

What remains of the Carthaginian annals does not exhibit those terrible seditions, which sprinkled Rome with blood, and made her republic totter. In Carthage, there were seven or eight powerful families; the Hamilcars, Asdrubals, Hannos, Bomilcars, Magos, Hannibals, and Himilcos, whose rivalry secured the public freedom. They mutually watched, and counterpoised each other. One no sooner aimed at dominion, than another opposed him. In the battles, which took place between them, the various authorities of the suffetes, senate, centumviri, and quinquevirl,

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still remained, and maintained the equilibrium; or, if it were for a moment destroyed, the existing authority easily brought back order, as nothing in the government was altered. On the contrary, among the Romans, the constituted powers themselves took the field; the people wished to be superior to the senate; the tribunes to the consuls: so that when peace was restored, from the various pretensions of each body, the seeds of war still existed. Among the Carthaginians, nothing further was necessary, than to suppress those rendered dangerous by their power, which they rigorously performed; banishing whole families at once. Thus the general, who, upon the credit of his partisans, had been placed at the head of the army, if unsuccessful, durst not return to Carthage; or, if he returned, he became a victim to the opposing cabal. Hence the frequent examples, in the history of these people, of vanquished generals killing themselves, or, when returned into the city, of being punished for their ill fortunes by a cruel death. Yet it does not appear, that these catastrophes caused such sanguinary commotions as in Rome, because the government itself still remained unshaken.

The wars of the Carthaginians and Romans bear also a different character. The latter, in the flourishing days of the republic, fought only for its aggrandizement and glory, and the nations no sooner submitted to the consular forces, than they were sure of being protected and maintained in their possessions. The Carthaginians, on the contrary, are represented, by the Romans, as greedy traders, who pursued gain wherever it could be obtained; and seized all which suited them, without any regard to its original possessors.

Their knowledge of each other was, from an early day, marked with immediate and mutual distrust. But notwithstanding the disagreements, to which a contrariety of interests sometimes gave rise, the two nations a long time respected each other; and their mutual animosity did not begin, till the Carthaginian conquest, in Sicily, became a subject of alarm to the Romans.

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The Carthaginians, before they carried their arms into this large island, had made their essay upon the lesser ones. On the Spanish coast, they had subdued Ivica, and established themselves in Gaza, Malta, Corsica, and Sardinia. When they attempted Sicily, to ensure its conquest, they made astonishing preparations. Their army consisted of three hundred thousand men; their fleet was composed of more than two thousand men of war, and three thousand transports; and, with these immense forces, they made no doubt of conquering the whole island, in a single campaign. But in this they found themselves deceived. Hamilcar, their leader, having landed his army, invested Himera, a city of considerable importance. He carried on his attacks with ardour; but was at length surprised, and defeated by Gelon and Theron, the tyrants of Syracuse and Agrigentum. Of his very numerous army, not a single person escaped; all being either killed or taken prisoners. Nor were the Carthaginians much more fortunate in their fleet, for of the enormous number equipped for this expedition, only eight vessels were saved from the enemy. But even these did not return to Carthage, being overtaken by a storm, in which they all perished. No description is equal to the distress and consternation of the Carthaginians on hearing these mournful tidings. They immediately dispatched ambassadors, sueing for peace on any terms. This was granted, on condition, that they should pay two thousand talents, to defray the expenses of the war, and erect two temples, where the articles of the treaty should be deposited and held sacred. Hard as the conditions were, the Carthaginians, as a testimony of their gratitude for Gelon's moderation, voluntarily presented his wife with a crown of one hundred talents value.

There is here a chasm of seventy years in the history of the Carthaginians. But we know that they had enlarged their dominions in Africa; and had shaken off the tribute, which they paid for the possession of their territory.

Being solicited, by the Egestines, to protect them from the assaults of the Seluntines, two small states in Sicily,

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they again attempted the reduction of that island. Great preparations were made to accomplish this arduous business; and an immense army and navy were instantly raised. The command was given to Hannibal, who, having landed on the Sicilian shores, directed his march towards Selinus, marking his path with general devastation. Having taken the city by storm, he treated the inhabitants with the most barbarous cruelty; sixteen thousand persons fell in a dreadful scene of massacre and confusion; the temples were pillaged, and the city razed to the ground. After this, he proceeded to Himera, which, after an ineffectual but valiant resistance, yielded to the same fate as Selinus.

To such a degree, indeed, were the Carthaginians animated by their late acquisitions, that they anticipated the certain subjection of the whole island. But as age and infirmity had almost incapacitated Hannibal, for the fatigues of war, they divided the command between him and Imilcar, the son of Hanno, one of his own family. These advanced to Agrigentum, which, after a severe contest, yielded to the Carthaginians, who did not fail to practise their usual barbarity. After having razed the city of Agrigentum, they made an incursion into the territories of Gela, and Camerina, both of which they ravaged in the most dreadful manner, carrying off immense quantities of plunder. The inhabitants, now finding their enemy of such superior force, abandoned their country, as the only expedient for the preservation of their lives. The Carthaginian army, however, being much debilitated, partly by the casualties of war, and partly by the virulence of the plague, a herald was despatched to Syracuse, to offer terms of peace; by the stipulations of which, the people of Gela and Camerina, were reinstated in their respective cities, upon their paying an annual tribute to the victors.

Dionysius, who had been appointed generalissimo of the Sicilian armies, and who had concluded the treaty with no other view, than that of gaining time to attack the common enemy with greater force, soon broke the peace, by destroying the persons and possessions of the Carthaginians, who

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had resided in Syracuse, on the faith of treaties. Dionysius, in the meantime, despatched a herald, bearing a letter to the senate, and people of Carthage, informing them, that if they did not immediately withdraw their garrisons from all the Greek cities in Sicily, they should be exterminated.

Not waiting, however, for an answer, he advanced with his army to attack the city of Motya, an extensive colony of the Carthaginians. Soon after he proceeded, in person, with the major part of his forces, to reduce the cities in alliance with the Carthaginians, leaving his brother, Leptines, to carry on the siege of Motya. Dionysius destroyed their territories with fire and sword; and most of the towns opened their gates at his approach; but the cities of Egesta and Entella, baffled all his efforts; being at length obliged to give up the contest, he returned to Motya, and carried on the siege of that place with the utmost ardour.

After a long and valiant defence, the Motyans yielded to the Greeks, who, for some time, continued a horrible massacre of the vanquished; but on their flying to the temples, the victors contented themselves with plundering the town.

Dionysius soon after made another attempt upon Egesta, and was again repulsed. Alarmed at his progress, the Carthaginians despatched a powerful army, under Himilco, who retook Motya. He next took Messina; after which, most of the Siculi revolted from Dionysius. Notwithstanding this defection, Dionysius, with forces to the amount of thirty thousand foot, and three thousand horse, advanced against the Carthaginian army, while Leptines attacked their fleet, and was totally defeated. Dionysius, dispirited by this loss, withdrew his army to Syracuse. Himilco immediately invested the city; and, but for a malignant pestilence, would certainly have become master of it: but the havoc of this dreadful malady, combined with an unexpected attack from Dionysius, terminated his career of victory, being obliged to pay three hundred talents, that he might retire, with his shattered forces to Africa. Unable to survive his misfortunes, he soon after put a period to his existence.

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Undaunted, however, amidst all these calamities, the Carthaginians repeated their attacks on the island of Sicily. Under the conduct of Mago, they landed an army of eighty thousand men. This expedition, however, was attended with no better success than the preceding. Reduced to great straits for want of provisions, they were obliged, once more, to sue for peace. The Sicilian war continued, with little interruption, for nearly twenty-five years, attended with various success. At the expiration of this period, the Carthaginians, availing themselves of the civil dissentions existing in Syracuse, exerted all their powers, assisted by Icetas, tyrant of Leontium, to subjugate the whole island.

The Syracusans, reduced to the greatest distress, called in the aid of the Corinthians. They immediately sent a small body of troops, under the command of Timoleon, an experienced general. He effected a landing, and marched against Icetas, and surprised him at the head of five thousand men. Of these he put three hundred to the sword, and took six hundred prisoners. He then took post in Syracuse, where he defended himself with such resolution, that the united forces of Icetas and the Carthaginians, could not dislodge him.

Here he continued for some time inactive, expecting reinforcements from Corinth. These succours, however, were a long time detained, which gave the Carthaginians an opportunity of posting a strong squadron to intercept them on their passage. But the commander left his station, thinking it impossible for the enemy to effect their passage, at such a stormy season, and ordered his seamen to crown themselves with garlands, and adorn their vessels with trophies of victory, at the same time declaring, that he had destroyed the succours which Timoleon expected. By this stratagem, he vainly thought to intimidate Timoleon into a capitulation. The supplies were speedily wafted by a gentle breeze into Sicily, without meeting with any opposition. The Carthaginian general was no sooner apprised of the arrival of this reinforcement, than, struck with terror, and dreading a revolt of his mercenaries, he immediately

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set sail for Africa, in spite of the remonstrances of Icetas. No sooner had he reached his native country, than, overcome with shame and remorse, he killed himself. His body was afterwards hung on a gallows, in order to deter succeeding generals from following his example.

After the flight of his most powerful opponent, Timoleon carried all before him. He obliged Icetas to renounce his alliance with the state of Carthage; and even deposed him. On the other hand, the Carthaginians made another attempt, on the independence of Sicily with an immense armament; but the fate of this enterprise was similar to that of the former, the forces being totally overthrown by Timoleon. After having gained this signal victory, Timoleon returned to Syracuse, where he was received with the greatest demonstrations of joy and applause; while, from the successive misfortunes which had attended their endeavours, the Carthaginians were induced to conclude a peace, on terms honourable to the Sicilian confederates.

Reiterated ill success, however, could not damp the spirit, nor lessen the zeal of the Carthaginians, to accomplish the conquest of Sicily. In their greatest reverses, they had never been totally expelled from thence. They had still preserved some territory there; and ports, by which they re-entered the island, and renewed their warfare, whenever favourable opportunities offered. The civil war, excited in Syracuse by Agathocles, was one which they chose to improve. Sometimes they were in alliance with the tyrant, sometimes with the nobility, whom he had expelled. The protection of the Carthaginians gave a superiority to the latter. Agathocles found himself pressed within the walls of Syracuse. At a time when his enemies thought his escape impossible, he loaded his fleet with troops, deceived the Carthaginian admiral, and carried the war into Africa.

Agathocles gained a signal victory over the troops, levied in haste, with which the Carthaginians opposed him, soon after he had landed. His appearance excited the utmost astonishment, as the Carthaginians imagined his forces to be destroyed, since they had been shut up in Syracuse.

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They could not conceive by what means he had been able, not only to reach Africa, in the face of a powerful fleet, by which he was blocked up, but, with the remainder of his beaten forces, to defeat an army stronger than his own. Prepossessed and blinded with superstition, they now reproached themselves with deceit, in having sacrificed, in the room of children of quality, the offspring of poor families, whom they had purchased for the purpose. To expiate this strange species of impiety, two hundred children, of the first families of the town, were immolated to Saturn; and more than three hundred persons, who reproached themselves with having failed in this duty, offered themselves as victims, to appease the wrath of this sanguinary deity, by their blood.

After these expiations, the Carthaginians despatched a messenger, to recal Hamilcar from Sicily. The utmost endeavours, however, were used, to prevent the news of Agathocles's successes reaching the ears of the besieged. On the contrary, it was given out, that his army and fleet had been totally destroyed. While matters remained in this state, a galley entered the harbour of Syracuse, proclaiming his victories. Hamilcar, having observed that the garrison flocked down to the vessel, and expecting to find the walls unguarded, thought this a favourable opportunity to begin the intended assault. His troops had gained considerable advantages, when they were discovered by the patrole. Upon this, a warm contest ensued, and the Carthaginians were repulsed with great loss.

The Agrigentines, perceiving to what a deplorable state the Carthaginians and Syracusans had mutually reduced each other, commenced a war with both parties, and shortly wrested from them many valuable places.

Agathocles, in the meantime, carried on his conquests with inconceivable rapidity, and prepared for the siege of Carthage itself. But, notwithstanding the repeated losses which the Carthaginians had sustained, they still mustered a powerful army, to oppose his progress. While matters were in this situation, advice was received of the destruc-

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tion of the Carthaginian forces before Syracuse; which made such an impression on their countrymen, that, had not a sudden rebellion arisen in the camp of Agathocles, they would have probably lost their city, before they could have recovered from the terror, which such an unexpected event had excited.

In the year following, an engagement took place, in which neither party gained any advantage. But Agathocles, finding himself unable any longer to carry on the war alone, engaged the assistance of Ophellas, one of the captains of Alexander the Great, who, with an immense army, marched to the aid of his new ally. But these auxiliaries were scarcely arrived, when this treacherous Sicilian cut off their commander; and, by fair promises, persuaded the troops to serve under himself.

At the head of such a numerous army, he now assumed the title of king of Africa, carrying on his conquests with great success. But, in the midst of his victorious career, the Sicilians formed an association in favour of liberty, to break which required his immediate presence. Therefore, returning, he left the command in the hands of his son, Archagathus, who despatched Eumachus, with a large detachment, to invade some of the neighbouring provinces. This general, elated with his constant good fortune, determined to penetrate into the more distant parts of Africa. Here, too, he at first was successful; but, hearing that a formidable body of the natives were advancing to give him battle, he retreated precipitately to the sea coast, after having lost a number of his men by the climate and fatigue.

The Carthaginians, informed of the misfortunes of Eumachus, redoubled their activity and resolution. Their exertions were now attended with a share of good fortune. Having cut off two out of the three divisions, into which Archagathus had split his army, they hemmed in the other with the commander at their head, in such a manner as completely to intercept all supplies of provisions. Having found means, however, to apprise Agathocles of their difficulties, he hastened to their rescue, with considerable

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forces, and, attacking the Carthaginian camp, made a considerable impression on it; but, being deserted by his mercenaries, he was finally obliged to withdraw, with great precipitation and loss.

As an acknowledgment to the gods for this advantage, the Carthaginians determined to sacrifice all the prisoners of distinction. During the performance of these detestable rites, a violent gust of wind suddenly arose, which, wafting the flames to the sacred tabernacle, near the altar, spread to the adjoining tents of the general, and other principal officers. This occasioned a dreadful alarm through the whole army, which was heightened by the rapid progress of the fire. In a short time the camp was laid in ashes, and many of the soldiers, endeavouring to carry off their arms, and the rich baggage of their officers, perished in the flames. Some of them, who had escaped the fury of the conflagration, however, did not meet with a happier fate, for the Africans who had forsaken Agathocles, coming over in a body to the aid of the Carthaginians, were mistaken, by the fugitives, for the whole Syracusan army, advancing in order of battle to attack them. Under this fatal deception, a horrid scene of confusion ensued. Some ran off; others fell down in heaps, one upon another; while others engaged their comrades, mistaking them for the enemy. Five thousand men lost their lives in this conflict; the rest sought refuge within the walls of Carthage; nor could a return of day light, for some time, dissipate their apprehensions. The African deserters, unable to comprehend the cause of the confusion, were so terrified, that they returned to the army of Agathocles. These, seeing a body of troops advancing towards them, in good order, conceived they were marching to attack them, and, therefore, the cry of "To arms!" was immediately thundered through the whole army. The lamentable screams with which the air was rent, combined with the flames, towering to the heavens, corroborated this opinion, and increased the confusion.

Agathocles, dispirited by this catastrophe, immediately

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turned his thoughts upon contriving some means for his escape, which, at last, with great difficulty, he effected. On his departure, the soldiers chose a leader from among themselves, having put to death his two sons, and made a peace with the Carthaginians.

Between this period and the commencement of the first Punic war, nothing remarkable appears in the history of the Carthaginians. At this time they possessed extensive dominions in Africa; had made considerable progress in Spain; were masters of Sardinia, Corsica, and all the islands on the coast of Italy, and had extended their conquests over a great part of Sicily. The Mamertines being reduced to great distress by Hiero, king of Syracuse, had determined to cede the city of Messina, the only one remaining in their possession, to that prince. On Hiero's advancing with his troops to take possession, he was met by Hannibal, who, at that time, commanded the Carthaginian army in Sicily, under the pretence of congratulating him on his good fortune. While Hannibal amused him with common place conversation, some of the Carthaginian troops were despatched towards Messina. On seeing a new reinforcement arrived for their succour, the Mamertines were divided into several opinions. Some proposed to accept the protection of Carthage; others were for rejecting its services, and surrendering to the king of Syracuse; but not agreeing on either alternative, at last it was determined, that they should call in the aid of the Romans. Deputies were therefore immediately sent, offering their city to the Romans, and imploring their protection in the most pathetic terms. After some debate, their request was granted. The Romans sent Appius Claudius, at the head of a strong army, to attempt a passage to Sicily. Caius Claudius was despatched with a few vessels to reconnoitre the coast. He found the Carthaginian squadron so much superior to his own, that it would have been bordering on madness to attempt a passage into Sicily at that time. He, however, crossed the straits, and made the necessary preparations for the transportation of the forces. The Carthaginians, on

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being informed of the designs of the Romans, fitted out a strong squadron of galleys, under the command of Hanno; to intercept their fleet, which they accordingly attacked with great fury, near the coast of Sicily. A violent storm arose during the engagement, which dashed many of the Roman vessels on the rocks, and the Carthaginian squadron, likewise, sustained considerable injury.

Such was the beginning of the first Punic war, which is said to have lasted twenty-four years. The two nations from this time, were accustomed to look upon each other as enemies. The Carthaginians were actuated by the desire of extending their possessions in Sicily, and maintaining their accustomed empire of the sea. The consideration of humbling a haughty rival, in no small degree stimulated their exertions. On the other hand, a spirit of opposition, combined with the hopes of adding Sicily and Sardinia to their dominions, urged the Romans to war with the Carthaginians. It was alleged, that a detestation of the character of that rival republic was the principal incentive. But this abhorrence was mutual; for Carthaginian faith was much on a par with Roman probity, when ambition or interest was concerned.

In the first year of this war, the Carthaginians, in alliance with the Syracusans, laid siege to Messina. But not acting in unison, they were completely routed by the consul, Appius Claudius. After this defeat, Hiero felt such disgust at the conduct of the Carthaginians, that he immediately entered into an alliance with the Romans. The former soon felt the consequence of the change, for they were bereft of all the cities on the western coasts of Sicily by the Romans. These had now only one object to contend for, and one enemy to combat. At the conclusion of this successful campaign, they retired, with the greatest portion of their troops, into Italy, where they took up their winter quarters.

Hanno, the Carthaginian general, next year, fixed his principal magazine at Agrigentum; a place, highly fortified by nature, but, from art, rendered almost impregnable, par-

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ticularly, as it was defended by a numerous garrison, under the command of Hannibal, a brave and experienced general. Finding all other means ineffectual, the Romans attempted to reduce the place by famine; but when the garrison was brought almost to the last extremity, a powerful reinforcement from Carthage, reanimated their depressed spirits. The leader of these troops, while on his march, also received a deputation from some of the inhabitants of Erbessa, the place where all the Roman magazines were contained, offering to put their town into the hands of the Carthaginians. This being accordingly done, the Romans must inevitably have been compelled to abandon their enterprize, had they not received copious supplies of provisions from their ally, Hiero. But notwithstanding all the aid he could afford them, the difficulties to which they were reduced, must have decided their fate, had not they obtained possession of Agrigentum. Hannibal, however, with the greatest part of the garrison, made their escape. Such was the end of this campaign. In it, great losses were sustained on both sides, from the complicated evils of famine, fatigue, and the ravages of war. The Carthaginians, incensed at their defeat, fined Hanno, who had fled to Heraclea, in an immense sum of money, at the same time they deprived him of his commission, which they conferred on Hamilcar; while Hannibal was nominated to the command of the fleet.

The admiral now received orders to ravage the coast of Italy; but the Romans having taken every precaution to oppose his landing, he was unable to execute his commission. At the same time the Romans, convinced of the advantages resulting from a superiority at sea, immediately built one hundred and twenty galleys, and subdued most of the midland cities; but the Carthaginians still maintained their interest in the maritime places, so that the successes of each, at the end of the campaign, were nearly equal.

In the fourth year of the war, the Carthaginian admiral captured seventeen Roman galleys. Hannibal next advanced at the head of fifty galleys, in order to reconnoitre

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the remaining naval forces of the enemy. When on this expedition, he was attacked and defeated by them. Animated by this success, the Romans, a second time, gained a signal victory over him, taking eighty ships, besides thirteen sunk, and making considerable slaughter among his men. This in some degree, raised the dejected spirits of the Romans. The excellent construction of the vessels of the Carthaginians, and their ability in manœuvring them, often disconcerted the best measures of their adversaries, or rendered their valour useless. The Romans were not, however, disheartened. They supplied their want of experience by the invention of the crow, a kind of machine, which, placed on the Roman vessels, lifted up, or, by its weight, pressed down and sunk the Carthaginian ships. It is seldom that what astonishes does not terrify. The efforts of these destructive machines finally secured victory to the Romans, and facilitated their carrying the war into Africa.

Notwithstanding these defeats, the Carthaginians still maintained a very contemptible opinion of the Roman navy; while, on the other hand, the Romans dreaded the maritime forces of their antagonists. With the shattered remains of his fleet, Hannibal set sail for Carthage; but to secure himself from the punishment, which he was confident would be inflicted on him, he sent one of his friends forward, before the final event of the battle could be publicly known, to acquaint the senate, that the Romans had put to sea with a great number of heavy, ill built vessels, each carrying a kind of machine, with the use of which the Carthaginians were unacquainted, and at the same time to inquire whether Hannibal should attack them. The senate were unanimous in their determination that the Romans should be attacked, upon which the messenger informed them of the unfortunate event of the battle. As the senate had already declared that their admiral should fight, they spared his life, and continued him in the command of the fleet.

In a short time, Hannibal, with a considerable number of galleys, again sailed for the coast of Sardinia. He had not

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been on this station long, before he was surprised by the Roman fleet, which captured many of his ships, and took many prisoners. This so enraged the remainder of his forces, that they immediately crucified their admiral. Had he escaped to Carthage, it is most probable he would have met with the same fate; for, in that country, it was falsely considered as the most heinous crime to be unfortunate.

In the meantime, these disasters were, in some measure, counterbalanced, by the successes gained in Sicily by Hamilcar. Availing himself of a dissention, which existed between the Romans and their Sicilian allies, he took them by surprise, and put to the sword four thousand men. He next proceeded to dislodge the Romans from their posts—took many cities, and overran great part of the island.

Soon after, we find that the Romans made themselves masters of the islands of Corsica and Sardinia. In the succeeding campaign, they took the town of Mytestratum, in Sicily, from whence they proceeded towards Camarina; but, while on their march, they were surrounded, in a deep valley, and in the most imminent danger of being cut off by the Carthaginian army. While in this dilemma, M. Calphurnius Flamina, legionary tribune, demanded a detachment of three hundred chosen men, promising to divert the attention of the Carthaginians, so as to enable his colleagues to pass unmolested. He accomplished this design with a bravery truly heroic; for having seized, in defiance of all opposition, on an eminence, he entrenched himself there, which immediately drew the whole attention of the Carthaginian army to the spot. Thus the brave tribune kept the enemy employed, while the consul conducted his army safely out of the intricate situation, into which, by his inadvertence, they had fallen. The legions, however, were no sooner out of danger, than they hastened to the assistance of their gallant companions; but all their exertions were too late. They found their dead bodies lying heaped one upon another. Calphurnius betrayed some symptoms of animation, as they dragged him from beneath a pile of

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lifeless bodies. By unremitting care and attention, he was, at length, restored to the enjoyment of life and health. As a reward for this glorious enterprise, he was presented with a crown of gramen.*

In the following year, Regulus, who commanded the Roman fleet, observing the Carthaginians lying along the coast, in a confused state, ventured, with a squadron of ten galleys, to observe their numbers and strength, ordering the remainder of his fleet to follow him, with all expedition. Advancing too near the enemy, he was immediately encircled by a great number of their vessels. The Romans fought with their accustomed bravery, but were overpowered. The consul, however, having found means to escape, the rest of his fleet soon returned, and defeated the Carthaginians, taking eighteen of their ships, and sinking eight.

Both parties immediately made arrangements for a decisive engagement, collecting their whole naval forces, in order to determine the fate of Sicily, as well as the dominion of the sea. The consuls, L. Manlius Vulso and C. Attilius Regulus, commanded the Roman fleet, consisting of three hundred and fifty galleys, each of them having on board one hundred and twenty soldiers, and three hundred rowers. The Carthaginian fleet was composed of three hundred and sixty sail, and was, besides, much better manned than that of the Romans.

Thus prepared to fight, both by sea and land, the Romans advanced, with the intention of invading Africa. They had arrived off Ecnomus, a promontory of Sicily, when, being met by the Carthaginians, a bloody engagement commenced, which continued with unremitting ardour the greatest part of the day. At length the Carthaginians were obliged to fly, with the loss of thirty galleys sunk, and sixty-three taken. Twenty-four galleys of the Romans were sunk. Having surmounted this grand obsta-

* In those happier days of Rome, this simple crown was considered as a greater encouragement to serve their country, than the hopes of obtaining the most splendid pecuniary reward.

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sle, the Romans proceeded on their destination, with the utmost expedition, till they arrived before Clupea, a city to the east of Carthage, where they made their first descent.

No words can express the terror and consternation of the Carthaginians, upon the appearance of the Romans, in Africa. The inhabitants immediately abandoned their habitations to the Romans. Having left a strong garrison in this place for the protection of their fleet, and to keep the adjacent territory in awe, the invaders advanced towards Carthage, taking several towns in their way; they also plundered a prodigious number of villages; burnt many splendid seats of the great; and took above twenty thousand prisoners. After having laid waste the whole country, almost to the gates of Carthage, they returned to Clupea, heavily laden with the immense booty they had acquired in this expedition.

Regulus* carried on his conquests with such rapidity, that, in order to oppose his progress, Hamilcar was recalled from Sicily, and joined in command with Bostar and Asdrubal. Hamilcar commanded an army of equal strength with that of Regulus; while his associates were intrusted with separate bodies, which were destined to assist each other, or act apart, as occasion required. Meanwhile, Regulus pursuing his conquests, arrived on the banks of the Bagrada, a river which falls into the sea at a small distance from Carthage. Here he had to contend with a serpent of prodigious magnitude, which, according to the description handed down to us by early historians, infected the waters of the river, and, by its very breath, proved fatal to every creature that ventured within its reach. On the Romans advancing to draw water, they were instantly attacked by this monster, which, twisting itself around their bodies, squeezed them to death, while others were swallowed alive.

* Regulus, who filled this exalted station with such credit to himself and benefit to his country, is said to have possessed only seven acres of land, from the produce of which, his family gained a subsistence.

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Its hard and thick scales were impenetrable, either to darts or arrows; wherefore, they had recourse to the balistæ, engines, anciently used in sieges, to throw immense stones against the walls of cities. From these they discharged volleys of stones, and so far succeeded, as to break its back bone. Thus disabled from twisting its enormous folds, the Romans approached, and despatched it. But the poisonous effluvia, emitted from its dead carcase, spread such infection throughout the adjacent country, that the victors were compelled to make a hasty retreat. The skin of this monster, measuring in length one hundred and twenty feet, is said to have been sent to Rome, where, as may be seen in Pliny, it was long preserved.

After having passed this river, Regulus laid siege to Adis, a fortress of great importance, situated at a small distance from Carthage, which Hamilcar and his colleagues attempted to relieve; but they imprudently fixed the encampment among hills and rocks, where the elephants, in which their chief strength consisted, were incapable of acting. Regulus, taking advantage of this error, immediately attacked them in their camp, killed seventeen thousand men, and took five thousand, together with eighteen elephants. Upon the fame of this victory, deputations to the conqueror, with offers of surrender, poured in from all quarters, so that, in the course of a few days, the Romans were possessed of eighty towns, among which, was the city of Utica. The alarm of the Carthaginians was heightened by these misfortunes, and they were almost reduced to despair, when Regulus laid siege to Tunis, a city about nine miles distant from the capital. Terror had so completely unmanned them, that they beheld the event of this siege from their walls, without making any attempt to oppose it. To complete their calamities, at this very time, the Numidians, their inveterate enemies, entered the territories of Carthage, committing the most dreadful devastations. From these combined causes, provisions became scarce in the city. The public magazines were exhausted, and the merchants, taking advantage of the general distress, demanded a most exor-

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bitant price, for what they had to sell. A famine at Carthage was deemed inevitable; more especially as the produce of the earth had been, in a great measure, destroyed by the hostile armies.

While under the heavy pressure of these complicated distresses, Regulus advanced to the very gates of Carthage. Here he encamped, and despatched deputies, with powers to treat for a peace. But the terms offered were so insupportably arrogant, that the Carthaginians, with a laudable zeal and indignation, spurned the proposals, determining to suffer all extremities, rather than submit to the conditions which Regulus had dictated.

At this perilous crisis, some mercenaries arrived from Greece, at the head of whom was Xantippus, a Lacedæmonian, a person of great bravery and experience, having been educated in the warlike school of Sparta, at that time the most renowned in the world. On being informed of the circumstances of the late engagement, this general alleged in public, that their defeat ought to be attributed to the false measures adopted by the Carthaginians, in choosing a situation where their chief strength had not scope for action, and not to the superior powers of the enemy. At the same time declaring that, by an opposite mode of conduct, they might retrieve their affairs, and expel the Romans from their dominions. These seasonable exhortations and suggestions at length reached the ears of the senate, who, together with the unsuccessful generals, begged that Xantippus would take the command in chief of their forces. Having, after due deliberation, consented to assume this appointment, he proceeded to discipline the troops in all the evolutions and movements of the Lacedæmonian school. As nothing can inspire the soldiers with a greater degree of courage than confidence in the abilities of their general, the Carthaginian troops, who had been dejected by their late misfortunes, now thought themselves invincible; under the conduct of Xantippus, who, on his part, unwilling to suffer their ardour to cool, through delay, immediately drew them up in order of bat-

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tle. The Romans were surprised at the sudden alteration which appeared in the movements of their enemy; but Regulus, trusting to his previous good fortune, instantly advanced within a short distance of the Carthaginian army, who, in opposition to their former fatal arrangements, had now pitched upon a vast plain. The space between the two armies was intercepted by a river, which Regulus intrepidly crossed, leaving no means of escape in case of a defeat. The engagement commenced with incredible fury on both sides; but, in the end, the Romans were completely defeated; their whole army, excepting two thousand who escaped to Clupea, being either killed or taken prisoners; among the latter, was their general, Regulus.

The victorious Carthaginians entered the metropolis in triumph, and were received with unbounded acclamations. They treated all the prisoners with the greatest humanity, except Regulus; but, to him they applied tortures, which no principles of honourable warfare can justify, and, at the bare recital of which, undepraved nature revolts; though it must be allowed that the pride and arrogance which he had displayed, in his prosperity were sufficient to exasperate their feelings. The desire of revenge for the insults offered by this man, was too predominant in the minds of the Carthaginians, to suffer, for a moment, the interference of the milder and nobler passions of the soul. He was thrown into a dungeon, where he had a portion of food allowed him, barely sufficient to support life, and a huge elephant, to which animal he felt an insuperable antipathy, was constantly placed near him, so as to prevent the enjoyment either of tranquillity or repose. But what was still more barbarous, after his return from an unsuccessful embassy to the Roman senate, they cut off his eyelids, and afterwards exposed him to the excessive heat of the meridian sun for some days; and, in order to complete their cruelty, they next enclosed him in a barrel; the sides of which were every where filled with large iron spikes, where he lay, in excruciating agonies, till released by the welcome hand of death.

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The Carthaginians, after this signal victory over Regulus, meditated no less than an invasion of Italy itself. The Romans took care, however, to garrison all their maritime towns, and put themselves in a state of preparation for this menaced attack. In the meantime, the Carthaginians besieged Clupea and Utica; but were compelled to relinquish this enterprise, upon hearing that the Romans were fitting out a fleet of three hundred and fifty sail. To oppose this powerful armament, their old vessels were immediately refitted by the Carthaginians, and new ones built with incredible expedition. The hostile fleets met off Cape Hermea, where the Carthaginians were vanquished, with immense loss. The Romans now pursued their course to Clupea, where they were attacked by the Carthaginian army, under the two Hanno's, father and son; but the bravery and military skill of Xantippus,* no longer inspired the men with courage. Notwithstanding the Lacedæmonian discipline he had introduced, and which was still practised, the Carthaginians were routed at the very first onset, with the loss of nine thousand men, among whom fell many of their chief officers.

The Romans were, nevertheless, obliged to evacuate Africa, from the want of provisions. The consuls, desirous of signalizing the eve of their authority, by some important victory in Sicily, steered for that island, contrary to the advice of the pilots, who represented the danger that would attend their passage, at such an inclement season. Their minds, however, were too much bent upon this enterprise, to listen to the voice of reason. A violent storm arose, and only eighty, out of three hundred and seventy vessels, escaped shipwreck. By this misfortune, Rome sustained a greater blow than it had yet felt; for, besides a numerous army and navy, all the spoils of Africa, which had been amassed by Regulus, and deposited in Clupea, in readiness to be transported to Rome, were swallowed up

* Xantippus had some time before, set out from Carthage, to return to his native country; but was basely assassinated on his way by the ungrateful Carthaginians.

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by the waves. The whole coast, from Pachinum to Camarina, was strewed with dead bodies, and wrecks of ships. In all the records of history there is scarcely to be found a disaster that will bear a parallel with this, if viewed in all its aspects.

On the news of this dreadful catastrophe, the Carthaginians renewed the war in Sicily, with unabated ardour, hoping, from its present defenceless state, to be able to subjugate the whole island. Fired with this idea, Carthalo, a Carthaginian commander, besieged and took Agrigentum. To follow up these advantages, Asdrubal was sent from Carthage, with a powerful reinforcement of troops, and one hundred and fifty elephants. At the same time they fitted out a squadron, with which they regained the island of Cosyra, and marched a strong body of forces into Mauritania and Numidia, to punish the inhabitants for the disposition they had evinced of entering into alliance with the Romans. In Sicily, Cephaludium and Panormus were still possessed by the Romans; but they were obliged, by Carthalo, to raise the siege of Drepanum.

A Roman fleet of two hundred and sixty galleys, soon after appeared off Lilybæum, in Sicily; but finding that place impregnable, they changed their course towards the eastern coast of Africa, where they made repeated incursions. Then touching at Panormus, in a few days after, they set sail for Italy; but when they came near cape Palinurus, they were overtaken by a violent storm, in which one hundred and sixty of their galleys, and a great many of their transports were sunk. The Roman senate, dejected by this fresh naval misfortune, issued a decree that, for the future, no more than fifty vessels were to be equipped, and those used solely in guarding the coast of Italy, and conveying troops into Sicily.

In the fourteenth year of the war, the Romans gained possession of Himera and Lipara, in Sicily; but, at the same time, the Carthaginians, still unbroken, fitted out a very powerful armament, both of land and sea forces, appointing Asdrubal to the command of the whole. The

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Romans, perceiving the advantages resulting from a fleet, immediately set about preparing one, notwithstanding the misfortunes which had attended their former endeavours. While the vessels were building, they appointed two consuls, men of distinguished bravery and experience, to supersede those acting in Sicily. Metellus, however, one of the former consuls, was continued, with the title of proconsul, when, finding means to draw Asdrubal into a disadvantageous battle, near Panormus, he gave him a most terrible overthrow.

Sometime after this action, the Carthaginians receiving intelligence, that the Romans had laid siege to Lilybæum, immediately reinforced the garrison of that place with a strong body of chosen troops, and at the same time strengthened the fortifications, so as to render them almost impregnable. In the meantime, the Roman fleet was completely defeated by Adherbal, the Carthaginian admiral. Eight thousand of their men fell in this engagement, and twenty thousand were sent prisoners to Carthage. This signal victory was accomplished without the loss of a ship, or even a single man, on the side of the Carthaginians. The remainder of the Roman fleet met a still more severe fate. It was composed of one hundred and twenty galleys, and eight hundred transports, laden with all kinds of military stores and provisions, which were so completely lost in a storm, that nothing of value was recovered. The Romans were again deprived of all their navy.

About this period, some signs of mutiny appearing in the army of the Carthaginians, Hamilcar Barcas, father of the illustrious Hannibal, was sent over into Sicily, with full power from the senate, to act as he thought proper. Having taken Eryx by surprise, he defended it with great ability. But being at length obliged to yield, a convention was drawn up between the two commanders, by which the Carthaginians were constrained to surrender all their remaining possessions in Sicily, for the space of twenty years; to pay an annual tribute to Rome, amounting in the whole to two thousand two hundred talents of silver, equal to four

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hundred and thirty seven thousand, two hundred and fifty pounds sterling; to restore the Roman prisoners, without ransom; but to redeem their own with money. This treaty was sent to Rome, to be ratified by the senate; but they, taking advantage of the unfortunate situation of the Carthaginian affairs, added two more conditions, namely, that one thousand talents should be paid immediately, and the two thousand two hundred within the space of ten years. They insisted also, that the Carthaginians should evacuate all the small islands adjacent to Italy and Sicily, and never more appear near them with ships of war, or attempt to raise mercenaries in that quarter. Dire necessity obliged Hamilcar to comply with those additional terms; but he returned to Carthage with an inveterate hatred to the Romans. He did not suffer his enmity to die with him; for he bound his son, the illustrious Hannibal, by the most solemn oath, never to be in friendship with the Romans. This he faithfully performed.

No sooner was this destructive war at an end, than the Carthaginians were embroiled in another. This arose from the impoverished state in which Hamilcar found the republic; for so far from being able to pay the largesses and rewards, which he had promised the mercenaries, it could not even discharge their arrears. He had intrusted Gisco, an officer of great penetration, with the care of transporting these mercenaries, who shipped them off in small parties, separately, that those who came first might be paid off, before the arrival of the rest; but the Carthaginians, at home, did not evince the same prudence. The finances of the state being much impaired by the expenses of the late war, and the immense tribute demanded by the Romans, they judged it impolitic to reduce the public to such a degree of impoverishment, as the payment of these troops would necessarily occasion. They, therefore, waited till all the mercenaries were assembled together, in the hopes of obtaining some remission of the arrears, but they were soon convinced of their error. At length, with some difficulty, they prevailed upon the officers to canton their troops in the vicinity

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of Sicca, giving them a sum of money for their present subsistence, and promising to comply with their demands on the arrival of the remainder of the army from Sicily. Among these mercenaries, immersed in idleness and dissipation, to which they had been wholly unaccustomed, a total neglect of discipline prevailed, and, in consequence, a petulant and licentious spirit raged throughout their whole camp. Gradually becoming more insolent, they were resolved not to acquiesce in their bare pay, but to insist upon the rewards, promised by Hamilcar, threatening to obtain their demands by force of arms in case of a refusal. On being informed of these mutinous expressions of the soldiery, the senate immediately despatched Hanno, one of the suffetes, to ward off the impending storm. Thinking to appease these mercenaries by expatiating on the poverty of the republic, he requested them to be satisfied with receiving a certain portion of their arrears, and to relinquish the claim to the rest. But, as they fought merely for pay, they would not give it up, for the good of a country to which they owed no natural attachment. Thus finding their reasonable expectations deceived, so far as not even to receive their stipulated wages, much less any gratuitous reward, they immediately had recourse to arms for the enforcement of their claims, and assembling in a body of twenty thousand men, encamped before the city of Tunis.

The Carthaginians, alarmed at the hostile disposition of so formidable a body of men, made large concessions to bring them back to subordination. This, instead of having the desired effect, served only to heighten their insolence. Perceiving their force, they grew averse to any terms of accommodation. The Carthaginians, making a virtue of necessity, agreed to refer the business to some general, who had witnessed their bravery in Sicily. Gisco was, therefore, appointed to mediate between them, and accordingly he soon arrived at Tunis, with money to pay off the rebellious troops. Having conferred with the officers of the various nations which had been employed, all differences were in a happy train of being adjusted, when Spendius

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and Mathos, chief mutineers, fearful lest they should be punished according to their demerits, spread the baneful seeds of discontent through the whole camp, under pretence, that it would be dangerous to conclude any treaty with their former masters. In consequence of this insinuation, the negociation was immediately suspended, and nothing but the most horrid imprecations against Gisco and the Carthaginians were to be heard. Whoever offered to make any remonstrance, or seemed inclined to listen to any temperate counsels, was stoned to death by the tumultuous multitude. They carried their frantic rage so far, as to stab many who had attempted to open their lips, before they had time to declare, whether they were in the interest of Spendius, or of the Carthaginians.

In this trying situation, Gisco's conduct was marked with firmness and intrepidity. He employed every means to calm the perturbed minds of the soldiers; but the torrent of sedition was so strong as to overwhelm every thing within its reach, and the voice of reason was drowned. The military chest was seized by the mutineers, and the money distributed, as part of their arrears. They next proceeded to load Gisco and all his followers with irons, treating them with every indignity that brutal rage could devise. All the cities of Africa, to which they had sent invitations to assist in asserting their freedom, soon joined in the rebellion, except Utica and Hippo, which still maintained their allegiance to the Carthaginians.

The rebel forces were divided into two parts, one of which marched towards each of these cities, in order to intimidate them into a compliance with their demands, while the Carthaginians suffered all the calamities incident to intestine commotions. After having been exhausted by a tedious and destructive war, they were in hopes of enjoying peace and repose; but, on the contrary, they were now harassed by an internal foe, more dreadful even than their foreign enemy, and, to complete their misfortunes, they had no hopes of receiving assistance from any of their former allies. The Africans kept them in constant alarm;

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advancing to the very walls of Carthage, and treating every citizen, who fell into their hands, with the most exquisite cruelty.

Hanno was despatched to the relief of Utica, with a strong body of forces. He succeeded so far as to repulse the enemy with great loss; but, after this victory, neglecting the discipline of his troops, in his turn, he was totally routed by the mercenaries, and obliged to take refuge in the town. Repeated proofs of Hanno's mismanagement, induced the Carthaginians to transfer the command of their forces to Hamilcar Barcas, who, by consummate skill and courage, set about retrieving the affairs of his country. After he had taken a favourable position, by making a feint of retreat, he drew the enemy into a disadvantageous battle, in which he gave them a complete overthrow, with the loss of six thousand killed, and two thousand taken prisoners. Nor did he allow them time to recover from the shock, but immediately pursued them with courage and perseverance, in consequence of which, many towns made a voluntary capitulation to the Carthaginians, while others were reduced by force.

Undaunted amidst all these disasters, Mathos, who had assumed the principal command, still urged on the siege of Hippo with vigour, appointing Spendius and Autaritus, at the head of a strong body of Gauls, to observe the motions of Hamilcar. At length these two commanders, having received a reinforcement of Africans and Numidians, and being possessed of all the heights surrounding the plain on which Hamilcar was encamped, determined to attack him. Had they followed up their design, Hamilcar must inevitably have been cut off; but they lost the opportunity. In the meantime, Naravassus, a young Numidian nobleman, deserting the enemy at this important crisis, with two thousand men, the Carthaginian found himself enabled to offer battle. The conflict was obstinate and bloody; but, in the end, the mercenaries were overthrown, with an immense loss. Those among the prisoners who were willing to enlist into the Carthaginian army, were gladly received by

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Hamilcar, while the others were allowed the full liberty to retire where they pleased, upon condition, however, that they should never more take up arms against the Carthaginians.

This lenient policy, in Hamilcar, made Mathos and his associates tremble, lest a general defection should take place among the troops. To obviate this, he stimulated them to perpetrate some action so execrable, that there might remain no hopes of pardon or reconciliation. To effect this purpose, Gisco and all the Carthaginian prisoners were put to death; and, on Hamilcar's petitioning for the dead bodies of his departed friends, the messenger was dismissed with the assurance that, should any one repeat this request, he should meet with Gisco's fate; and, not satisfied with this, they treated with the same barbarity, all the Carthaginians, who afterwards fell into their hands. As a retaliation for this enormity, Hamilcar delivered all the prisoners, which were taken by him, to be devoured by wild beasts, under the conviction, that compassion only rendered his enemies more cruel and presumptuous.

The war was, in general, carried on to the advantage of the Carthaginians; nevertheless, the malcontents still had it in their power to muster fifty thousand men. Closely watching the motions of Hamilcar, they prudently avoided approaching too near, while on champaign ground; but at length Hamilcar, by a superiority of skill and conduct, surrounded them, in a situation from which it was impossible to extricate themselves. Here he kept them strictly besieged; and the mercenaries, unwilling to risk a battle, began to fortify their camp, encompassing it with entrenchments. Labouring under the direful effects of famine, and rendered desperate by the consciousness of their guilt, they had not even the hopes of obtaining mercy to support them. At length, driven to the dire extremity of subsisting on the bodies of their companions, the troops insisted that Spendius, Autaritus, and Zarxas, their leaders, should, in person, make proposals of submission to Hamilcar. Having allowed them to treat, it was finally stipulated, that every

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man should be completely disarmed, and that ten of their ringleaders should be left to the mercy of the Carthaginians. This treaty was no sooner concluded, than Hamilcar seized upon the negociators. This being known, the revolters had recourse to arms, conceiving their agreement to have been violated. Hamilcar, on perceiving this eruption, drew up his troops, and immediately surrounding them, cut in pieces upwards of forty thousand of these unfortunate wretches.

After the destruction of this army, Hamilcar and Hannibal invested Tunis, whither Mathos, with his remaining forces, had retired. The besiegers were no sooner encamped than Spendius with the rest of the prisoners were crucified, within the view of the besieged. Meanwhile, Mathos perceiving that Hannibal kept a weak guard, sallied forth, killed many of his men, and took several prisoners, and among them Hannibal himself. As if zealous to outdo each other in deeds of cruelty, Mathos immediately took down Spendius, and his fellow sufferers from the cross, and substituted Hannibal, with thirty Carthaginian persons of distinction, in their room.

Still the Carthaginians left no means untried, that might conduce to the welfare of the state. They, therefore, immediately despatched thirty senators, to consult with Hamilcar about measures to effect the termination of this intestine war. Judiciously sacrificing private animosity to the public welfare, Hanno and Hamilcar agreed to act in unison, to attain this important end. Pressing all who were capable of bearing arms into their service, they now defeated the enemy in every rencounter. At length they gave Mathos a decisive blow, near Leptis, and the hostile troops fled in every direction; but were chiefly overtaken, by the revengeful sword of the Carthaginian army. Mathos, with a few others, having escaped to a neighbouring town, was taken alive, and, being escorted to Carthage, suffered all that ingenious cruelty could inflict, but not more than his enormities had deserved.

In the meantime, the Carthaginians introduced their own garrisons into the islands, and kept possession of the

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towns, to secure the reimbursement of their expenses, though they had pretended they were acting as friends. Hamilcar, sensible of the inferiority of the power of his own country to that of Rome, formed a scheme to raise it to a level with its haughty rival, by extending his conquests in Spain, with the expectation that it would employ and exercise a vast number of soldiers, and render them fit to contend with the Roman veterans. Having made the necessary preparations for this grand enterprise, Hamilcar, after extending the Carthaginian dominions in Africa, entered Spain, where he remained in command for nine years. During this period, he amassed immense treasures, which he distributed, partly among his soldiers, and partly among the great men of Carthage. By these means, he effectually secured the interest of those two powerful bodies. After having subdued large tracts of territory, he was at length killed in battle, and succeeded by his son-in-law, Asdrubal. This general carried on his conquests in Spain, with still greater rapidity than his predecessor, and built the city of New Carthage, now called Carthagena.

The acquisition which Asdrubal had made in Spain, during a seven years' command, were such as to excite the jealousy of the Romans; but he was at length assassinated by a Gaul, whose master had been put to death at his instigation. Three years previously to the death of Asdrubal, he had requested that Hannibal, then only twenty-two years of age, might be sent to him. This request being granted, Hannibal was no sooner arrived in the camp, than he conciliated the sincere affection of the army, both from the similitude he bore to Hamilcar, and his own natural talents and abilities. On the death of Asdrubal, he was declared general by the army, with every demonstration of joy, and immediately exerted his superior powers, in subduing many of the most considerable nations in Spain.

No obstacle whatever impeded the progress of the Carthaginian arms, except that the city of Saguntum still remained in the possession of the Romans. Hannibal, having found means to embroil some of the neighbouring cantons

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with the Saguntines, furnished himself with a pretext for attacking that city. Two ambassadors arriving from the Roman senate, to remonstrate against this recommencement of hostilities, he answered, that the Saguntines had drawn these calamities on themselves, by entering into a quarrel with the allies of Carthage. Not satisfied with this reply, the ambassadors proceeded to Carthage, where they declared that, if Hannibal was not delivered up to the punishment of the Romans, hostilities should immediately be renewed against them. Such was the origin of the second Punic war.

After a siege of eight months, the city of Saguntum was taken, and the inhabitants experienced all the severities which the conquerors could inflict. This object being gained, Hannibal put his African troops into winter quarters at New Carthage, in the meantime permitting the Spanish auxiliaries to retire to their respective homes.

Having taken the necessary precautions for the security of Africa and Spain, Hannibal now passed over the Iberus, and subdued every nation lying between that river and the Pyrenees, appointing Hanno governor of all the newly conquered districts. From thence he proceeded on his march for Italy, across the Pyrenees; and, after surmounting many difficulties, ascended the Alps. After a fatiguing march of nine days, he halted a short time on the summit of these stupendous mountains, in order to recruit the spirits of his wearied troops. The snow and the piercing cold alarmed the Spaniards and Africans; but, to raise their spirits, he led them to the highest rock on the side of Italy, where he pointed out the fruitful plains of Insubria, assuring them that the Gauls, who inhabited that country, were ready to join them. He at the same time declared that, by climbing the Alps, they had virtually scaled the walls of Rome. His troops, thus inspired with resolution to suffer and die, began to descend, through deep snows, mountains of ice, and terrific precipices, more formidable than the enemies they had to combat in their ascent. At length, after vanquishing obstacles almost insuperable to any but

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such a man as Hannibal, they arrived on the plains of Insubria, and assumed the boldness and intrepidity of victors.

On mustering his forces, Hannibal found they had suffered a dreadful diminution, since their departure from New Carthage. He refreshed the survivors with an assiduity and success which could not be surpassed, and uniting them with the Insubrians, they laid siege to Taurinum, the inhabitants of which city had waged war against an ally of the Carthaginians. It resisted the combined armies but three days. The victors taking possession, put all those to the sword, who opposed their progress. This strong measure struck the neighbouring barbarians with such terror, that they submitted to the conqueror; supplied his army with provisions, and did every thing in their power to facilitate his progress.

The Roman general Scipio, surprised to find that his antagonist, in quest of whom he had gone to the banks of the Rhone, had crossed the Alps, and entered into Italy, immediately returned with the greatest expedition. An engagement ensuing near the river Ticinus, the Romans sustained a severe defeat, and were compelled to repass that river. In the meantime, Hannibal continued his progress, till arriving on the banks of the Po, he halted for two days, to refresh his men, and to construct a bridge of boats. Having effected his passage, he despatched his brother Mago, in pursuit of the enemy, who had rallied their scattered forces, and fixed their encampment at Placentia. He afterwards concluded a treaty with several Gallic cantons, and, advancing a day's march beyond the Po, was rejoined by Mago, with the other division of his army. The Carthaginians again offered battle to the Roman consul; but, intimidated by the desertion of a body of Gauls, and by the ardour of the enemy, the latter retreated to an eminence on the opposite side of the river Trebia. Hannibal, apprised of the consul's departure, sent out the Numidian horse to harass him on his march, and followed with the main army, in order to assist in case of necessity. They soon brought the Romans to an engagement, and defeated them

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with great loss, pursuing the fugitives, who amounted to about ten thousand, as far as the river Trebia. After this action, Hannibal made frequent incursions into the Roman territories, endeavouring, by every means, to win the affection of the Gauls, as well as of the allies of Rome, by dismissing all the prisoners without ransom, and engaging to defend them, in case of molestation from his enemies.

After carrying on this desultory warfare for some time, he crossed the Apennines, and penetrated into Etruria, when hearing that the new consul Flaminius lay encamped under the walls of Arretium, he felt no doubt of being able to inflame the impetuous spirit of his adversary to a battle. To effect this purpose, he took the road leading to Rome, and, leaving the hostile forces behind him, desolated all the country, through which he passed, with fire and sword. Flaminius, indignant at beholding the ravages committed by the Carthaginians, approached them with great temerity, and being drawn into an ambuscade, near the lake Thrasymenus, lost his life on the field of battle, together with fifteen thousand men. Great numbers were likewise taken prisoners, as was a body of six thousand men, who had taken refuge in a town of Etruria. Hannibal lost but fifteen hundred men in this conflict, who were chiefly Gauls, though many, on both sides, afterwards died of their wounds. Soon after he despatched Maherbal, with considerable forces of cavalry and infantry, to attack a body of horse, which had been detached from Ariminum by the consul Servilius, to reinforce his colleague, in Etruria. The detachment, after a short engagement, and considerable slaughter, was compelled to submit to the victorious Carthaginians. This disaster, happening within so few days after the defeat at Thrasymenus, was severely felt by the Romans, notwithstanding their natural fortitude.

A scorbutic disorder prevailing at this time throughout the Carthaginian army, Hannibal reposed for a considerable time in the beautiful and fertile country of Adria. Having taken possession of that part of the territory bordering on the sea, he despatched a messenger to Carthage

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with the news of his victorious progress, which was received by his countrymen with the most joyful acclamations, and they immediately resolved to reinforce their armies, in Italy and Spain, with a proper number of troops.

The Romans, in the utmost consternation, appointed a dictator, as was customary in times of danger. Fabius Maximus, surnamed Verrucosus, was chosen to this office, a man as remarkable for his deliberation and circumspection, as Flaminius for ardour and impetuosity. He followed Hannibal at a distance, into Apulia, keeping him in continual alarm; but could not be prevailed on to come to an engagement, though his army was clamorous for this measure. Their complaints rose at length to such a height, that the dictator, fearing to irritate them, feigned a desire to meet his opponent in the field. He, therefore, pursued Hannibal with greater alacrity than usual, still, however, under various pretences, taking care to avoid an engagement, with even more assiduity than the enemy courted it. At length, Hannibal, having exhausted every means to provoke the dictator to a battle, determined to quit Campania, which he found abounding more with fruit and wine, than with corn, and to return to Samnium, through the difficult pass, called Eribanus. Fabius perceiving his intention, from the direction in which he marched, arrived there before him, and, encamping on Mount Callicula, prepared to oppose his passage. This scheme was, however, rendered abortive, by a stratagem, which Fabius could neither foresee nor guard against. Arrived at the foot of the mount Callicula, Hannibal directed faggots to be tied to the horns of two thousand oxen, and then set on fire. The animals were then driven by the herdsmen, without noise, within sight of the Roman camp. Fabius depended on the troops whom he had placed in ambuscade to prevent the passage of Hannibal, but these, seeing the lights approach them on all sides, and supposing themselves surrounded by the enemy, fell back upon their own camp, and suffered their adversaries to pass unmolested. The Roman general, though rallied by his soldiers, at being thus over-reached by the

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Carthaginians, still pursued his original plan of protrastination, and contented himself with closely watching the motions of the enemy.

Hannibal, amidst all his ravages, having studiously spared the lands of the dictator, it was suspected, that an improper correspondence existed between the two commanders, on which account Fabius was recalled to Rome, to explain the motives of his conduct. During his absence, Minucius, the general of the horse, gained some advantages, which considerably strengthened the allegations against the dictator; but, having satisfied the senate, the latter was restored to his rank, though Minucius was put on an equal footing with him in the command of the army. The force being thus divided into two parts, Minucius led his division into an engagement, which must inevitably have ended in his total defeat, had not Fabius hastened to his assistance. Minucius, ashamed of his rashness, and conscious of want of skill, immediately resigned the entire command to Fabius.

The Roman army was now augmented to an immense number. Hannibal, reduced to the greatest distress for the want of provisions, left Samnium, and directed his course into Apulia, leaving fires burning and tents remaining in his camp; the Romans were, therefore, for some time led to believe that his retreat was only feigned. But the truth being at length developed, the Carthaginian army was overtaken at Cannæ, and a battle ensued, as memorable as any which history has recorded. The contest terminated in the complete defeat of the Roman army, though almost double in number to that of the Carthaginians. At least forty-five thousand fell in this fatal conflict, and ten thousand were taken prisoners. In Hannibal's camp, the night passed away in feasting and rejoicings, and on the succeeding day, the two Roman camps, jointly containing the small number of four thousand men, were invested by the victorious general.

That portion of Italy called the Old Province, Magna Grecia, Tarentum, and part of the territory of Capua, im-

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mediately surrendered to Hannibal. The neighbouring provinces likewise evinced a disposition to throw off the Roman yoke; but waited to see whether the Carthaginians could protect them. The humanity which Hannibal had heretofore shown to the Italian prisoners, and the signal victories he had gained, induced many cities and provinces to court his protection. Even the Campanians, a nation highly favoured by the Romans, were strongly inclined to abandon their natural friends. The Carthaginians, receiving intelligence of this, bent their march towards Capua, which was easily added to their acquisitions. Soon after its submission, many cities of the Brutii likewise opened their gates to Hannibal. Mago was then despatched to Carthage with the news of the decisive victory at Cannæ, and the successes resulting from it.

What Hannibal had already achieved, under so many disadvantages, must undoubtedly entitle him to rank higher, in regard to courage and abilities, than any other hero, ancient or modern. To conquer, with inferior numbers, men endowed with the most intrepid and warlike disposition, was not to be effected by common place talents. He had not to contend with barbarians, nor uncivilized nations; neither, as was the case with Alexander the Great, had he to combat with a country sunk into sloth and effeminacy, but with men of superior strength, and equally skilled in military affairs with himself. With an army of only twenty-six thousand men, he attacked the Roman nation, though cut off from all resource, either for money, recruits or provisions, except what he could procure in an enemy's country, by his own abilities. Nor was there any deficiency in the talents of the Roman generals. This is evident from their having conquered the most martial nations, when under the command of the ablest generals, Hannibal only excepted.

Yet, from the period of the battle of Cannæ, the successes of this illustrious warrior began to decline. The Roman historians, wishing to detract from the high character of Hannibal, and unwilling that such a noble exam-

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ple of courage, skill and magnanimity should be faithfully recorded, lest it should derogate from the fame of their own heroes, have debased him, by declaring that he enervated himself and his soldiers to such a degree, by debaucheries, whilst remaining in winter quarters at Capua, that he was no longer able to cope with the Romans. But this assertion is afterwards confuted by themselves, when they confess that, subsequently to the battle of Cannæ, he gave their armies frequent and terrible defeats, taking many of their towns, in the very presence of their defenders.

But the insufficient resources supplied by the republic of Carthage, for reinforcing his army, appear to have been the real causes of the sad reverse of fortune, which Hannibal was now doomed to experience. When the first news of his success reached Carthage, a body of four thousand Numidian cavalry, and forty elephants, together with one thousand talents of silver, were granted by the senate. A large detachment of Spanish troops was also appointed to follow, and Mago was commissioned to hasten their equipment. Had this supply been sent with proper expedition, it is most probable, that the Romans would have had little reason to cast an odium upon Hannibal's conduct at Capua, as the next campaign must undoubtedly have terminated, in the submission of that haughty republic to the superior force of his arms. But notwithstanding the influence of the Barcinian faction at Carthage, Hanno and his adherents, sacrificing the public good to a pernicious jealousy of that party, found means, by their artifices, not only to retard the march of the intended reinforcements, but even to diminish their numbers. Thus deserted by his native country, Hannibal found himself reduced to the necessity of acting on the defensive, instead of pursuing his career as a conqueror. Though his army amounted to no more than twenty-six thousand foot, and nine thousand horse, and these laboured under such great disadvantages as prevented him from extending his conquests, yet the most strenu-

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ous efforts of the Roman power proved unable to drive his small army out of Italy, for more than fourteen years.

Every possible means was now put in practice by the Romans for the purpose of strengthening their army. They supplied their newly enlisted troops with arms, which had formerly been taken from different enemies, and had, for some time, been hung up as trophies in the public temples and porticos. The treasury was also recruited by the voluntary contributions of patriotic citizens, who stripped themselves of all the gold in their possession, in order to apply it to the public use. By these means the finances were put in good condition, and their army rendered proportionably strong.

But, notwithstanding these noble efforts, the Romans must inevitably have experienced a repetition of the same ill success, if Hannibal had been properly supported. Feeling sensibly the want of money, he gave the Roman prisoners permission to redeem themselves, and ten of their body were immediately despatched to Rome for the purpose of negociating their liberty, pledging their most solemn oaths for their return. They were commissioned at the same time to carry proposals for peace; but on the arrival of these unfortunate captives at Rome, the dictator sent a lictor commanding them immediately to depart the Roman territory, as it was determined not to redeem the prisoners. On this, Hannibal immediately sent the greater part of them to Carthage, and the rest, he compelled to act the part of gladiators, obliging them to fight with each other, for the savage entertainment of his troops.

Meanwhile, Cneius and Publius Scipio, carried on the war with great success, in Spain, against the Carthaginians, and Asdrubal, while on his way to reinforce Hannibal, was defeated. The dictator and senate of Rome, encouraged by these events, made the most vigorous preparations for a decisive campaign, whilst Hannibal remained in a state of inactivity, at Capua. This inactivity, however, appears to have arisen from the continual expectation of receiving

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reinforcements from Carthage; but, in this hope, he was disappointed. The ruin of the Carthaginian affairs, in Italy, was the consequence.

The Roman forces, notwithstanding all their losses, still remained much superior to those of Hannibal; twenty-five thousand men marched out of the city, under the command of the dictator, while fifteen thousand were held in reserve by Marcellus. Pursuing the plan of his predecessor, Fabius Maximus, the dictator, came to no engagement for the space of a year after the battle of Cannæ. Hannibal, however, made an attempt upon Nola, expecting it would be delivered up to him; but the Roman dictator entering that city, and sallying unexpectedly from three gates upon the Carthaginians, obliged them to retire in great confusion, with the loss of five thousand men. This being the first advantage gained where Hannibal commanded in person, the Romans were not a little animated by their success; but their spirits were again dejected by the news of the consul Posthumius Albinus being cut off with his whole army by the Boii. Still they resolved to concentrate their whole forces against their most formidable enemy, Hannibal, who, notwithstanding his repulse at Nola, had reduced several cities; but the Campanians, who had espoused the Carthaginian interest, having raised an army of fourteen thousand men in support of Hannibal, were defeated with great loss, by the consul Sempronius. It having been discovered about this time that the Carthaginian general had concluded a treaty of alliance with Philip, king of Macedon, a Roman army was transported into Greece, to prevent any annoyance from that quarter. Not long after this, Hannibal sustained a terrible defeat in a pitched battle with Marcellus, who, having armed his men with long pikes, pierced through the Carthaginian forces, while the latter were unable to make the least resistance, from the inferior length of their javelins. They were, therefore, obliged to fly, and being closely pursued by Marcellus, before they could take refuge in their camp, five thousand men were killed, and six hundred taken prisoners. This calamity was considerably

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augmented by the desertion of twelve hundred of the best horse, who had participated in all the glory and fatigue, which attended the passage over the Alps. Depressed by these reverses of fortune, Hannibal left Campania, where he had long sojourned, and retired into Apulia.

The Roman forces were now daily increasing their strength, while those of the Carthaginians were as rapidly declining. Fabius Maximus immediately advanced into Campania, whither Hannibal returned in the hopes of saving Capua. In the meantime, he ordered Hanno, at the head of seventeen thousand foot, and one thousand seven hundred horse, to seize Beneventum; but he was repulsed with immense loss. Hannibal then advanced to Nola, where he was again defeated by Marcellus. He now began to lose ground with as much rapidity, as he had formerly gained it: Casilinum, Accua in Apulia, Arpi, and Aternum, were retaken by the Romans; but the inhabitants of Tarentum, voluntarily delivered their city to Hannibal. So intent was he upon reducing the garrison which still maintained the citadel of that place, that he was deaf to the entreaties of the citizens of Capua, who were threatened with a siege by the Roman army. Hanno, in the meantime, was again utterly vanquished by Fulvius, being forced to fly with a small body of horse into Brutium. The consuls then advanced with the intention of laying formal siege to Capua; but, while on their march, Sempronius Gracchus, a man of great bravery and skill, was assassinated by a Lucanian; and, in the death of this general, the republic sustained an almost irreparable loss. Capua, however, was now assailed on all sides, and the besieged, a second time, supplicated Hannibal, who at length came to their assistance. He so contrived matters that the period of his intended attack on the Romans was communicated to the besieged, with a desire that they would second his endeavours, by making a vigorous sally at the same time. The Roman generals, on the first news of the enemy's approach, divided their troops; Appius, with one portion, making head against the garrison, while Fulvius defended

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the entrenchments. The garrison was, with little difficulty, repulsed, and had not Appius been wounded as he was entering the gate, he would have pursued them even into their city; but Fulvius found it no easy task to withstand Hannibal, whose troops evinced incredible ardour and intrepidity. A body of Spaniards and Numidians passed the ditch, and, in spite of all opposition, climbing the ramparts, penetrated into the heart of the Roman camp; but, not being properly seconded, the life of every individual was sacrificed on the spot. The Carthaginian general, dismayed at these misfortunes, immediately sounded a retreat. Still, however, hoping to effect the relief of Capua, he marched towards Rome, where he supposed his approach would strike such terror into the minds of the inhabitants, as might cause the recal of the army from Capua to their assistance. Having previously acquainted the Capuans with his design, they were by no means disheartened at his departure; but this manœuvre was not attended with the expected success; for Fabius, having penetrated into his intentions, it was judged sufficient to recal Fulvius, with no more than fifteen thousand men, to the assistance of Rome. On his arrival, Hannibal was obliged to retire, and returning to Capua, he surprised Appius, driving him out of his camp, with the loss of a great number of men; the latter then entrenched himself on some eminences, till he could be joined by his colleague, Fulvius. Feeling his inability to combat with the whole Roman army, Hannibal now relinquished all thoughts of relieving Capua. This, of course, was soon surrendered to its ancient masters.

A short time prior to the submission of Capua, Hannibal fell in with a Roman army, commanded by M. Centenius Penula, who had frequently signalized himself as a centurion. This rash adventurer, on being introduced to the senate, had the presumption to insinuate, that, if they would intrust him with the command only of five thousand men, he would soon give a good account of Hannibal. His army was, however, augmented to the number of sixteen thousand, with which, having attacked the Carthaginians, after a bat-

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tle of two hours, he fell, surrounded by all his soldiers, excepting only about one thousand.

Not long after this, Hannibal, having found means to draw the prætor, Cneius Fulvius, into an ambuscade, put to the sword nearly his whole army, consisting of eighteen thousand men. Meantime, Marcellus made great progress in Samnium, gaining possession of three cities, in two of which, finding three thousand Carthaginians, he put them all to death, and at the same time carried off immense quantities of corn. This by no means compensated for the defeat which Hannibal gave the proconsul, Fulvius Centumalus, whom he surprised and cut off, together with thirteen thousand of his men. Thus alternately victorious and vanquished, large numbers of the human race were destroyed, without any decisive effects.

Soon after this defeat, Marcellus marched with his army to oppose Hannibal, and various losses are said to have been sustained on each side, in their repeated encounters; but at length the subtle Carthaginian decoyed his antagonist into an ambuscade, and destroyed both him and his army. In consequence of this event, the Romans were obliged to raise the siege of Locri, with the loss of all their military engines. This happened in the eleventh year of the war.

Hitherto the Carthaginians, though no longer the favourites of fortune, had still been able, in a great measure, to maintain their ground; but the misfortune which befel Asdrubal, as he was conducting some auxiliary troops from Spain to his brother Hannibal, proved the death warrant of the Carthaginian affairs. After meeting with many favourable circumstances, which conduced to facilitate his progress, he arrived at Placentia sooner than the Romans, or even Hannibal himself could expect. Had he continued to use the same expedition with which he began his march, nothing could have averted the fatal blow impending over Rome, from the united forces of Hannibal and his brother. But, on the contrary, indolently indulging his repose before Placentia, he gave an opportunity to the Romans of inun-

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tering all their troops to oppose him. Being now obliged to raise the siege, he directed his course towards Umbria, and immediately despatched a letter, to acquaint Hannibal of his intended motions; but the messenger being intercepted, and the consuls having, in consequence, united their armies, attacked the Carthaginians with great vehemence. These being much inferior to their opponents, both in point of numbers and resolution, the issue of this conflict was a total defeat. Asdrubal himself was among the slain. About the same time, Hannibal, after having sustained repeated repulses, retired to Canutium; but, on the melancholy intelligence of his brother's death, he withdrew to the extremity of Brutium, and remained there a considerable space of time in a state of inaction. Yet such was the terror existing in the minds of the Romans, at the recollection of what this hero had achieved, that, although his hopes and fortunes seemed to be wrecked, and the Carthaginian affairs appeared to be on the brink of destruction, they did not venture to provoke an attack.

The republic of Carthage now devoted their whole attention to the preservation of their possessions in Spain, while the more important affairs in Italy were treated with absolute neglect. All their anxiety, however, about the security of their dominions in Spain was to very little purpose, as they found a courageous and successful enemy in Scipio, who, besides gaining many other considerable advantages, reduced the cities of New Carthage and Gades.

At length the mist, raised by prejudice and malevolence, which had rendered the Carthaginians so blind to their own interest, began to be dissipated by dear bought experience; but it was now too late. Mago received orders to leave Spain, and sail to Italy with all expedition. Landing on the coast of Liguria, with an army of twelve thousand foot, and two thousand horse, he surprised Genoa, and at the same time seized upon the town and port of Savo. A reinforcement joined him at this place, and new levies were raised in Liguria, with great speed; but the opportunity was now passed, and could not be recalled. Scipio,

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after having carried all before him in Spain, passed over into Africa, where no enemy appeared capable of opposing his progress. The affrighted Carthaginians, beholding their country on the brink of destruction, recalled their armies from Italy, for the preservation of their own capital; and Mago, who had entered into Insubria, was routed by the Roman forces, and, retreating into the maritime quarters of Liguria, was met by a courier, with orders for his immediate return to Carthage. On the same order being communicated to Hannibal, he manifested the most acute sensations of distress and indignation. Groaning and gnashing his teeth, he was scarcely able to refrain from shedding tears. "Never did a man, under sentence of banishment," says Livy, "show so much reluctance to relinquish his native country, as Hannibal felt on leaving that of his enemy."

On Hannibal's landing in Africa, he strained every nerve to animate the courage, and increase the strength of the Carthaginian army. Encamping at Zama, a town about five days' march from Carthage, he sent out spies to observe the situation of the Romans. These men were taken prisoners, and carried before Scipio; but so far from inflicting any punishment upon them, according to the rules of war, he ordered them to be conducted about the camp, to the end that they might take an exact survey, and afterwards dismissed them. Hannibal admiring the magnanimity of his rival, earnestly solicited an interview with him. The two generals, therefore, escorted by equal detachments of horse, met at Madaura, where, by the assistance of interpreters, they held a conference. Hannibal, flattering Scipio in refined and artful language, expatiated upon all the topics which he conceived most capable of inducing that general to grant his nation a peace, on moderate and equitable terms, affirming, that the Carthaginians would willingly confine their possessions to Africa, while the Romans were at liberty to extend their conquests to the most remote nations. Scipio replied, that the Romans were not instigated to engage in the former or present war with Carthage, by

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ambition or any sinister considerations, but by the strict regard they paid to justice, and the security of their allies. He also observed, that, previously to his arrival in Africa, he had received more submissive proposals; the Carthaginians having offered to pay a tribute of five thousand talents of silver to the Romans, to restore their prisoners without ransom, and to surrender all their galleys. At the same time, Scipio urged that, instead of expecting more advantageous terms, they should be grateful that they were not more rigorous; but, if Hannibal would comply with the proposed conditions, a peace should instantly ensue; if not, the dispute must be left to the decision of the sword.

This conference, held between two of the greatest commanders the world has ever seen, ended without success; both returning to their respective camps, where they inflamed their troops by the assurance that, not only the fate of Rome and Carthage, but that of the universe collectively, was to be decided on the succeeding day, by the exertion of their arms. During the engagement, which accordingly took place, Scipio is said to have passed a very high encomium on the excellent military genius of his opponent, openly avowing, that, the conduct of the Carthaginian hero was superior to his own. But the precarious state of Carthage admitted of no delay. Hannibal, obliged to hazard a battle, with a considerably inferior number of cavalry, was utterly defeated, and his camp taken, while he himself sought refuge at Thon, and afterwards removed to Hadrumetum; from thence he was recalled to Carthage, where he prevailed upon his countrymen to conclude a peace with Scipio, on the severe terms prescribed by the victor.

Thus was the second Punic war terminated, on conditions, to the last degree humiliating to the Carthaginians. They were obliged to surrender all the Roman deserters, fugitive slaves, and prisoners of war, as well as all the Italians, whom Hannibal had constrained to follow him. At the same time they stipulated to give up all their ships of war, except ten trirremes, and all their tame elephants, be-

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ing likewise restricted from training any more of those animals for military service. They bound themselves also to undertake no war, without the consent of the Romans, and engaged to advance, at equal payments, in fifty years, ten thousand Euboic talents. They further agreed to enter into an alliance with Massinissa, restoring all they had usurped from him or his ancestors, and to assist the Romans, either by land or sea, in case of emergency. These galling terms, roused the indignation of the populace to such a degree, that they threatened to plunder and burn the houses of the nobility; but Hannibal assembling a body of six thousand foot and five hundred horse, quelled the insurgents; and, by his influence, completed the treaty, in ratifying which, the inevitable ruin of Carthage was sealed.

This fatal peace had scarcely been concluded, when Massinissa seized on part of the Carthaginian dominions, in Africa, under pretence that it formerly belonged to his ancestors. The Carthaginians, through the potent but prejudiced interference of the Romans, found themselves under the necessity of ceding those countries to that ambitious prince, and of entering into an alliance with one, who had unjustly despoiled them of their territories.

After the conclusion of the peace, Hannibal still maintained his reputation among his countrymen. He was entrusted with the command of an army against some neighbouring nations; but his enjoyment of this post giving offence to the Romans, he was exalted to the civil dignity of prætor, in Carthage. In this office he continued for some time, making useful regulations in the affairs of the state; but his conduct, even in this capacity, exciting the jealousy of his inveterate enemies, he was forced to fly to Antiochus, king of Syria. After his flight, the Romans still watched the Carthaginians with a suspicious eye, though, to remove any distrust, his countrymen despatched two ships to pursue him; confiscated his effects; razed his house; and, by a public decree, declared him an exile. Ever seeking some new asylum, the tranquillity of which was as often disturbed, by his jealous persecutors, Hannibal was inces-

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santly in fear, lest he should be unable to elude their pursuit. Under this apprehension, he, by means of poison, put an end to a life, which had been marked with achievements sufficiently glorious to adorn the annals of ages. His abilities were truly extraordinary; intrepid in danger—prolific in expedients, and above the weakness of despair, amidst the most complicated difficulties, he often defeated the most subtle schemes of his adversaries, and rose superior to calamities, which would have borne down a common man. The inveterate hatred entertained by the Romans against this formidable adversary redounds more to his praise than any eulogium. By the death of Hannibal, his country sustained an irreparable loss, and her glory sunk, to rise no more.

Soon after Hannibal's retreat and exile, disagreements arising between the Carthaginians and Massinissa, the latter, notwithstanding the manifest iniquity of his proceeding, was supported by the Romans, whom he cajoled by affirming, that the Carthaginians had received ambassadors from Perseus, king of Macedon, and that they were about to enter into an alliance with that prince. Not long after this, Massinissa made incursions into the province of Tysca, where he possessed himself of many towns and castles. In order to check his further outrages, the Carthaginians applied, with great importunity, to the Romans for redress, being restrained, by an article in the last treaty, from repelling force by force, without their consent. The ambassadors, prostrating themselves on the ground, implored the Roman senate to determine the extent of their dominions, that they might know, in future, what they had to depend on; or, if their state had by any means given offence, they begged that they would punish them themselves, rather than leave them exposed to the insults and depredations of so merciless a tyrant. But even with all this solicitation and humility, they could not obtain their request, and Massinissa was permitted to continue his outrages with impunity. Whatever enmity, however, the Romans might bear their natural foe, they affected to show some regard to the

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principles of justice and honour. They, therefore, despatched Cato, a man remarkable for the enormities he committed, under the specious pretence of public spirit, to accommodate the differences between Massinissa and the Carthaginians; but the latter, aware of the fatal consequences which would ensue, should they acquiesce in such a mediation, appealed to the treaty concluded by Scipio, as the only rule by which their conduct, and that of the aggressor, should be scrutinised. This reasonable request, from an unfortunate people, so incensed the haughty disposition of Cato, that, from that moment, he determined upon the destruction of their state.

The Carthaginians, sensible that the Romans were their implacable enemies, and reflecting on the harsh treatment they had experienced from them as umpires in this business, in order to prevent a rupture, impeached Asdrubal, general of the army, and Carthalo, commander of the auxiliary forces, as guilty of high treason, in having promoted the war against the king of Numidia. A deputation was at the same time sent to Rome, to discover the opinions entertained of their late conduct, and to learn what satisfaction the Romans demanded. These messengers meeting with a cold reception, others were despatched, who returned with no more favourable success. The unhappy citizens of Carthage, were now thrown into the deepest despair, from an apprehension that speedy destruction awaited them. Nor were their fears groundless, as the Roman senate, jealous and uneasy, lest the Carthaginian republic should resume some share of its former vigour, had now determined on its final subversion. The city of Utica, remarkable for its magnitude and riches, as well as for its capacious port, having, through fear, submitted to the Romans, the possession of so important a fortress for the attack of the capital, induced them immediately to declare war against Carthage. The consuls, M. Manlius Nepos, and L. Marcius Censorinus, with an immense armament, were despatched against the defenceless Carthaginians, having previously received secret instructions from the

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senate, not to suspend offensive operations, till the complete destruction of that state; a measure which they pretended was essentially necessary to their own security. Pursuant to their previous arrangements, the troops were landed at Lilybæum, in Sicily, from whence, after making the necessary preparations, it was proposed that they should be transported to Utica.

In the meantime, the Carthaginians were not a little agitated by the last intelligence brought by their ambassadors; although they were still ignorant of the calamitous destiny that awaited them. They, therefore, sent fresh negociators to Rome, invested with unlimited power to act as they thought proper, and even to submit themselves, without reserve, to the disposal of the Romans. This embassy appeared, in some measure, to soften the obduracy of the Romans, who promised the Carthaginians not only the enjoyment of their liberty and laws, but likewise whatever was, in their estimation, most dear and valuable. The rapture of the Carthaginian populace was immoderate, on the report of this favourable turn in the negociation; but a melancholy reverse took place, on being informed by the senate, that the Romans listened to their overtures only on condition that three hundred of the young noblemen of Carthage should be despatched to Lilybæum, within the space of thirty days, to hear the final resolution of the consuls. This uncertainty impressed the inhabitants of Carthage with the deepest melancholy. The hostages, however, were delivered, but the decision of their fate was deferred till the consuls should arrive at Utica, where they were assured that the further orders of the Romans should be made known.

No sooner, therefore, did the ambassadors receive intelligence of the Roman fleet appearing off Utica, than they hastened to learn the destiny of their city. The consuls made their demands successively, and at some distance of time from each other, lest their atrocity, had they all appeared at once, should excite the indignation of their victims, and put a stop to their execution. They first re-

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quired a sufficient supply of corn for the subsistence of their troops—a point which was granted without difficulty. Secondly, the delivery of all their galleys, with three rows of oars—and, Thirdly, the delivery of all their warlike machines, and that all their arms, in general, should be brought to the Roman camp. These harsh and ruinous demands were submitted to with equal regret and uneasiness. Thus despoiled, this unfortunate people were incapable of defending themselves, or supporting a siege. "Now, then," said the imperious consuls, "abandon the city which we are about to destroy, and carry off from it whatever you can. You are allowed to build another, on condition that it is many leagues from the sea, and without walls or fortifications."

When the mournful news reached the city, through its deputies, the most dreadful consternation arose. Rage and anger succeeded to despair, and, in their first emotions, the people massacred every senator and public officer whom they met, for having submitted to the required terms, and suffered themselves to be deprived of all means of defence. They cursed their ancestors for not gloriously dying in the defence of their country, rather than acquiescing in dishonourable conditions, which had brought destruction on their posterity. Courage arose from the extremity of their misery. All swore to perish rather than submit to such hard conditions. The senate made every practicable exertion, in their defenceless state, for sustaining a siege. They closed the gates of their city, collected on the ramparts great heaps of stones to supply the defect of arms in case of a surprise, and liberated all the malefactors confined in prison; gave the slaves their liberty, and incorporated them in the militia. Asdrubal, who had been sentenced to die, in order to deprecate the vengeance of the Romans, was now entreated to employ, in the defence of his country, an army of twenty thousand men, which he had raised against it. Another Asdrubal was appointed to command in Carthage; but though every one appeared animated by the most determined resolution for the defence of their capi-

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tal, they still felt sensibly the want of arms. To obviate this, by order of the senate, the temples, porticos, and all other public buildings, were converted into manufactories, in which men and women were incessantly occupied in preparing the means of defence. One hundred and forty-four bucklers; three hundred swords, one thousand darts, and five hundred lances and javelins, were daily furnished to the soldiery. Wanting the usual materials for making the balistæ and catapultæ, they used silver and gold, melting the statues, vases, and even the private property of families; none, on this occasion, sparing fatigue or expense in such an important cause. As there were no supplies of hemp and flax, to make ropes for working the machines, the women, even of the first rank, cut off their hair, and dedicated it to the service of their country. Asdrubal, forgetting his private wrongs in those of the public, came to the assistance of his native city, and having taken his post, without the walls, employed his troops in collecting provisions, which were conveyed to the Carthaginians in great abundance.

The consuls, in the meantime, supposing the inhabitants of Carthage to labour under a famine, which must eventually oblige them to submit, delayed their approaches to the city, being in hourly expectation of receiving their concession; but, at length, discovering the real state of affairs, they advanced, and immediately invested the city. Firmly persuaded that the Carthaginians were unarmed, they flattered themselves, they should carry the place with great facility. Under this idea they approached the walls with their scaling ladders; but great was their surprise on discovering multitudes of men on the ramparts, glittering in the armour they had recently made. So powerful was the effect of this unexpected discovery on the minds of the legionaries, that they drew back, and would have retreated, had not the consuls led them on to the attack. The Romans, however, in spite of all their exertions, were obliged to relinquish the enterprise, and abandon all thoughts of reducing Carthage by assault. Asdrubal, having collected from all places sub-

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ject to Carthage a prodigious body of troops, encamped at a short distance from the Romans, and soon reduced them to considerable distress for want of provisions.

In the meantime, Marcius, one of the Roman consuls, being posted near a spot covered by stagnant waters; the noxious vapours, combined with the excessive heat of the season, caused an alarming sickness among his troops. To alleviate its virulence, he ordered the fleet to approach the shore, in order to transport his troops to a more salubrious situation. Asdrubal, however, apprised of this intention, filled all the old barques in the harbour with combustible materials, and sent them before the wind, upon the enemy's ships, by which means, the greatest part of them were consumed. After this disaster, Marcius was called home to preside at the elections, and the Carthaginians, encouraged by the absence of one of their principal opponents, made an attempt in the night to surprise the other consul's camp; but, meeting with unexpected opposition, they were obliged to return to the city in disorder.

Asdrubal, having posted himself under the walls of Nepheris, a city built on a high and almost inaccessible mountain, about twenty-four miles distant from Carthage, made frequent incursions into the neighbouring country, harassing his enemy by every stratagem he could devise. The Roman consul, therefore, immediately hastened to Nepheris, determined to dislodge his adversary from so advantageous a position. He was attacked by Asdrubal, however, with such impetuosity, that convinced of his imminent danger, he was glad to sound a retreat. On this, Asdrubal rushed down the hill, pursued the Romans, and cut a great number of them to pieces; but the invaders were preserved from total destruction by the unparelled bravery of Scipio Æmilianus; for, at the head of three hundred horse, he sustained the attack of all the forces commanded by Asdrubal, covering the legions while they passed a river in their retreat before the enemy; and their passage being effected, he and his companions threw themselves into the stream, and gained the opposite bank. When they had crossed the

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river, it was perceived that four manipuli were wanting. This was no sooner discovered, than Æmilianus, taking with him a chosen body of horse, hastened back to their rescue. Attacking the Carthaginian forces, with the courage and intrepidity of men resolved to die or conquer, they opened a passage for their countrymen. On his return to the army, who had given him up for lost, Scipio was carried to his quarters in triumph, and the manipuli, whom he had rescued from such imminent danger, presented him with a crown of gramen.

In the succeeding year, the conduct of the war in Africa, fell by lot to the consul L. Calphurnius Piso, who employed Æmilianus in several enterprises of importance, in which he was attended with singular good fortune. After taking several castles, he procured a private interview with Thameas, general under Asdrubal, of the Carthaginian cavalry, and prevailed on him to join the Romans with two thousand two hundred horse. Notwithstanding this defection, however, the Roman army, under the consul Calphurnius Piso, made a very slow progress. On the approach of winter, he retired to Utica, without performing any action of decisive importance, during the whole campaign.

In the ensuing season, Scipio Æmilianus passed over into Africa, in quality of consul, and finding three thousand five hundred Romans in imminent danger in Megalia, one of the suburbs of Carthage, he flew to the relief of his countrymen, and having driven the Carthaginians within their walls, brought them off in safety to Utica.

Concentrating his forces, he now directed all his energies to the reduction of the capital. To this end he first carried Megalia by assault, the Carthaginian garrison retiring to the citadel of Byrsa. Asdrubal, who had commanded the troops in the field, and was now chosen governor of Carthage, was so enraged at the loss of Megalia, that he inhumanly ordered all the Roman prisoners to be brought upon the ramparts, and thence thrown headlong into the sea, after having, with an excess of cruelty, caused

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the hands and feet of the unhappy victims to be cut off, and their eyes and tongues to be rooted out. In the meantime, Æmilianus was assiduously employed in contriving means to reduce Carthage, and at length so far effected his design, as totally to preclude the possibility of conveying supplies into it. The besieged, however, with almost incredible industry and perseverance, dug a new bason, and cut a communication between it and the sea, thereby obviating the distresses which must have ensued, from a vast mole raised by the Romans, with the view of rendering their port inaccessible to ships. With equal diligence and expedition they fitted out a fleet of fifty triremes, and, conducting them through this canal, suddenly launched them on the sea, to the no small astonishment of the Romans. An engagement ensued, which lasted the whole day, with little advantage to either party. The succeeding day, Æmilianus endeavoured to gain possession of a terrace, which covered the city on the side next the sea; and, on this occasion, the besieged signalized themselves by extraordinary valour. Great numbers, naked and unarmed, sallied out in the dead of the night, holding unlighted torches in their hands, till they approached within reach, when they lighted their torches, and threw them against the Roman engines. The sudden appearance of naked men, resembling as they did, so many monsters rising from the bosom of the waves, struck such terror into the Romans who guarded the engines, that they retreated in the utmost confusion. The consul, however, who commanded in person, endeavoured by every means to inspire his men with resolution; but, the Carthaginians perceiving the general consternation, fell upon the Romans with irresistible fury, and, having put them to flight, entirely destroyed the machines. Notwithstanding this disaster, Æmilianus, after a few days, renewed the attack; carried the terrace by assault; and took every precaution to fortify it against the sallies of the enemy. Having obtained this advantageous post, he, for a time, suspended all further exertions; but circumstances did not permit him to remain long inactive.

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The Carthaginians receiving regular supplies of provisions from Nepheris, where a very numerous army, under the command of Diogenes, was encamped, Æmilianus made an attack on that place, and at length succeeded in obtaining possession of it, and thus cut off the chief source from which Carthage received her supplies. Numbers fell in the conflict; and, after a siege of twenty two days, Nepheris opened its gates to the victorious Romans. Asdrubal, disheartened by the defeat of his army, and deeply affected by the accumulated distresses of his countrymen, now offered to submit to any conditions that the Romans would name, consistent with the preservation of the city; but even this proposal was refused. The approach of winter, in a great measure, suspended the operations of the enemy, and delayed the fate of Carthage.

Early in the spring, Æmilianus renewed the siege with additional vigour. He ordered Lælius to attempt the reduction of Cothon, a small island which separated the two ports, while he himself made a feint on the citadel, in order to divert the attention of the enemy. This stratagem had the desired effect. Considering their citadel as of the highest importance, most of the Carthaginians flew to its aid, making use of their utmost exertions to repel the aggressors. Lælius, meanwhile, having with inconceivable expedition, built a bridge over the channel, which separated Cothon from the isthmus, soon made himself master of the important fortress erected on this island. No sooner did the proconsul understand, from the shouts of the victors, that their attempts were crowned with success, than he immediately abandoned the false attack, and, unexpectedly assailing the adjacent gate of the city, forced his way amidst the incessant showers of darts discharged from the ramparts on his troops. The approach of night, however, retarding his further progress, he made a lodgment within the gate till the return of day, when, pursuant to his design of attacking the citadel, he ordered a reinforcement of four thousand fresh troops to advance from the camp. Thus prepared, having previously devoted to the infernal deities

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the unfortunate Carthaginians, he advanced at the head of his troops to the market place. Here he found that the way to the citadel lay through three steep streets, the tops of the houses, on each side of which were lined with the Carthaginians, who discharged heavy volleys of stones and darts on the Romans, as they approached. In order to remove this impediment, Æmilianus, at the head of a detachment, assailed the first house, and put all he met with to the sword. This example was followed by the other officers and men, who gradually advanced, as the houses on each side were cleared. The Carthaginians, however, though in this last and dreadful extremity, continued to make a vigorous resistance; two bodies of men, one placed on the roofs of the houses, the other parading the streets, disputed every step with the most desperate bravery. The slaughter was prodigious and inexpressibly shocking; the air was rent with shrieks, which would have melted any heart but that of a conqueror wading through the blood of thousands, to attain the object of his ambition. Some were massacred by the sword, others precipitated themselves headlong from the tops of the houses, and the streets were paved with dead or mangled bodies. But the havoc was still more dreadful, when Æmilianus ordered that quarter of the city, adjoining the citadel, to be set on fire; multitudes, who had hitherto escaped the swords of the enemy, now fell victims to the merciless flames, or perished amidst the ruins of their habitations. After the conflagration had raged six successive days, the Roman general ordered the rubbish to be cleared for a considerable space, that his army might have scope for action. He then appeared with his whole forces before Byrsa, whither many of the Carthaginians had sought refuge. Part of these fugitives, prostrating themselves at the feet of the Roman general, supplicated no other favour than the preservation of their lives. This was readily granted, not only to them, but to all who had fled to Byrsa, some Roman deserters excepted. Asdrubal's wife earnestly entreated the permission of her husband to join the suppliants, and to carry with her, to the proconsul, her two

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infant sons; but dead to the tender feelings of a parent, he silenced her request with menaces. Perceiving, however, that the Roman deserters were excluded from all chance of mercy, and had entered into a resolution to die, sword in hand, rather than submit to the vengeance of their countrymen, he committed his wife and children to their charge. After this unnatural and ferocious conduct, with the base pusillanimity of a coward, he surrendered himself, and fell at the feet of the conqueror.

The Carthaginian garrison, in the citadel, no sooner perceived themselves abandoned by their leader, than they threw open the gates, and put the Romans in possession of Byrsa. They had now no other enemy to contend with, than about nine hundred deserters, who, reduced to despair, had sought an asylum in the temple of Æsculapius. In this situation the proconsul attacked them; and, debarred of all hopes of escape, they set fire to the temple. The flames spreading rapidly, these unhappy victims fled from one part of the building to another, till at length they were driven to the roof. Here the wife of Asdrubal appeared, uttering the most bitter reproaches against her husband, whom she beheld standing below in company with Æmilianus. "Inglorious wretch," she exclaimed, "what degrading actions hast thou perpetrated to preserve an existence so dishonourable, but this instant thou shalt witness the atonement of thy guilt, in the death of these two guiltless infants." On this she stabbed both the children with a dagger, and, precipitating them from the top of the temple, immediately leaped down after them, into the flames.

Æmilianus delivered up the city to be pillaged, in the manner prescribed by the Roman military law. The soldiers were allowed to participate in the plunder of all the furniture, and brass money found in private houses; but the gold, silver, statues, pictures and other valuables, were reserved for the appropriation of the quæstors. Prior to the demolition of the city, Æmilianus, in conformity to the religious ceremonies usual on such occasions, offered sacrifices to the gods, and caused a plough to be drawn

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round the walls. This done, the towers, ramparts, and all other public edifices, to erect which had been the labour of ages, were levelled with the ground; and, finally, fire was set to the remains of this once majestic metropolis. Although the conflagration began in all quarters at the same time with the utmost fury, seventeen days elapsed before the whole was reduced to ashes.

Thus fell Carthage;—the destruction of which ought rather to be attributed to the intrigues of an abandoned faction, composed of the most profligate of its citizens, than to the superior power of its rival. It dawned, arrived at maturity, and perished within the space of seven hundred and fifty years. In expiation of the injustice of their ancestors, the Romans, many years afterwards, attempted to erect a new city, on the site of the old. It did not, however, arrive at any degree of splendour till the time of Augustus, when it was esteemed the second city in the empire. This again was laid in ashes by Maxentius, in the reign of Constantine; but Carthage once more held a considerable rank among the cities of Africa, under Genserick, king of the Vandals, and was re-annexed to the Roman empire, by the memorable Belisarius. It was at length so completely demolished, towards the close of the seventh century of the Christian æra, that not a wreck remains of its ancient grandeur.

On the site of Carthage, however, there now stands a small village, called Melcha, in which may be seen three eminences, formed, in all probability, out of the ruins of temples, or some other public edifices.

It is, perhaps, worthy of remark, that the two cities of Rome and Carthage, were placed in a situation not less diametrically opposite, than the respective interests and views of their inhabitants. The aggrandizement of the one, required perhaps the destruction of the other, and as public spirit is scarcely compatible with the narrow policy of commerce, where each pursues his private advantage, it was the fate of Carthage to submit.

The reader of Carthaginian history, will not fail to

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observe, that those tremendous intestine seditions, which imbrued Rome in the blood of her citizens, and shook the very foundation of her republic, were less frequent in the African republic; but it should be observed, that there existed, in Carthage, several powerful families, whose competition firmly secured the public liberty, and thus prevented the conflict of demagogues. Narrowly watching and counterpoising each other's actions, no sooner did one party show a disposition to assume authority, than they were strenuously opposed by their rivals; and in the occasional dissentions which arose between these families, the respective authorities of the suffetes, senate, centumviri, and quinqueviri, still maintained the equilibrium, or if, for a period, the peace of the state was disturbed, the disorder proceeded to no perilous lengths, as is evident from the unchanged form of government. They zealously suppressed such as became dangerous from their power, sometimes banishing whole families at once, and by the aid of one faction, preventing the encroachments of another. In the Carthaginian history, we have seen, that a general, placed by his partisans at the head of an armament, dared not return to Carthage, if his endeavours had been unsuccessful, or, if he returned, it was but to fall a victim to the opposing cabal.

The connexion, between the Carthaginians and Romans, appears, from its earliest dawn, to have been marked with direct and reciprocal distrust, and had not the Punic archives been suppressed or destroyed, it would have proved highly interesting to trace the progress of these two republics, from jealousy to open enmity. Certain it is, that from the commencement of the Carthaginian conquests, in Italy, the hatred that the Romans had for them, suffered no diminution; but, on the contrary, gained new fire from time and circumstances. That two nations should glory in the calamities inflicted on each other, and strain every nerve to lessen the sum of individual happiness, on both sides, is a reproach to human nature. When the most exalted nations of the present times have lost their rank, or sunk into insig-

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nificance, their mutual ambition, their groundless enmities and distrusts, their eagerness to distress each other, and the sordid objects which have influenced their conduct, may, possibly, be regarded in the same light, and give rise to similar reflections. It is impious to suppose, that man was born to tyrannise over man, or one people over another; yet, this spirit of domination, to a greater or less extent, pervades every human breast, as well as the public mind. Its baneful effects are too often seen and felt in families, and the smaller circles of social life; but to a much higher degree, when they extend to nations.

On a retrospect of the horrible scenes, which have been reviewed in the preceding pages, the depravity of human nature must be sufficiently obvious. Nor will the reader be less struck with the great obligations we are under to Christianity, for lessening the horrors of war, especially among nations, who respect that benevolent system of divine truth. While the miseries of the Carthaginians excite our sympathy, we cannot help looking back to the prophetic curse, pronounced by Noah, on their ancestor Canaan. The Carthaginians sprung from the Tyrians, the Tyrians from the Sidonians, and Sidon was the first born of Canaan. Of the Tyrians, Ezekiel, in 589 B. C. had prophesied, "that though they should pass to Tarshish, and to Chittim, yet, even there, they should find no quiet settlement, there also shalt thou have no rest." The Tyrians might well be said to have no rest; for their conquerors pursued them from one country to another. But it is more emphatically true of their descendants, the Carthaginians. Their history is made up of little else than wars and tumults, even before their three fatal wars with the Romans, in every one of which their affairs declined from bad to worse. Sicily and Spain, Europe and Africa, the land, and their own element, the sea, were theatres of their calamities and miseries, till at last, their unfortunate metropolis was utterly destroyed.

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NUMIDIA,

Extended from thirty-four degrees, five minutes, to thirty-seven degrees north latitude, and from one degree, fifteen minutes west, to nine degrees, sixteen minutes east longitude of Greenwich. The Mediterranean washes it on the north. The aspect of vegetation, in this country, is uncommonly diversified. Fertile lands are found by the side of a sandy and barren plain; and a great extent of desert lies frequently in the vicinity of the most populous districts. The sides of lofty mountains are adorned with rich and variegated landscapes, covered with orchards of delicious fruits, and watered by fresh fountains. Near these cooling streams frequently spring up fountains of hot water, which owe their origin, probably, to exhausted volcanoes.

Numidia was formerly well cultivated, and produced corn in abundance, while the scattered remains of numerous towns, prove it to have possessed a considerable population. The Romans carried thither a fondness for the arts, of which some monuments still remain. By the legends of medals which have been discovered, it appears that the ancient Numidians possessed a written language of their own.

Judging of their origin by their religion, we should believe them to be Egyptians, Phœnicians and Greeks; for they preserved the gods and the worship of these various nations.

The ancient Numidians were divided into tribes, cantons, or hordes. Their mapalia, or tents, were of an oblong form, and secured from the inclemency of the weather by a covering of hair cloth. A number of these formed a Numidian encampment. Each horde, having consumed the produce of one fertile spot, removed, from time to time, in quest of sustenance for themselves, and pasturage for their cattle. Some, however, resided in fixed habita-

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tions, made of hurdles, mud, straw, and other light materials, which were distinguished by the name of magaria.

In their diet they were remarkably abstemious, living chiefly upon herbs, grains, pulse and water. Their garments were loose, without sash or girdle. Their constitutions were rarely impaired by disease, and many of them attained to longevity.

The Numidians, in general, were a rude and barbarous people, who have left few traces of an acquaintance with the arts or sciences. They were, however, eminent for their skill in horsemanship, and in the use of the javelin and dart; and seem to have possessed a competent share of knowledge in some branches of the military art. The Numidian cavalry was always in high esteem, and the Romans and Carthaginians, who equally prized it in their wars, rendered it extremely famous. Though it was their custom to dart impetuously on the enemy, in loose array, yet they sometimes charged and retired in an orderly manner.

Among the Numidians, no other government was known than that of kings. But the thickest darkness shades the history of these princes, till the time when, by their connection with the Carthaginians, they acquired some celebrity. To all appearance, they rendered their people happy by peace, and opened their ports to trade. They even allowed the Phœnicians to establish colonies amongst them; but the Numidians themselves were not great traders, and appear to have had no marine of their own. Latterly even their valour became a subject of traffic, and they transported their squadrons wherever pay was to be obtained, to Spain, Italy and Sicily, in the fleets of the Carthaginians or Romans.

By these rival republics, the Numidians, who were divided into distinct kingdoms, were often set in opposition to each other; and it sometimes happened, that Numidians who were on the side of the Romans at the commencement of the war, found themselves Carthaginians at its close.

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The early history of Numidia has, for many ages, been buried in oblivion. It is probable, however, that Iarbus reigned here when Dido laid the foundation of Byrsa; and it appears, from good authority, that, in the time of Herodotus, the inhabitants of this country were called both Lybians and Numidians. Justin also intimates, that about this time the Carthaginians obtained a victory over the Numidians, and shook off a tribute which had been exacted ever since Dido's arrival in Africa.

After the termination of the first Punic war, the Micatanian Numidians, with other African tribes, carried on a sanguinary war with the Carthaginians, till Hamilcar sent a strong detachment to punish the aggressors. The commandant of that detachment executed his orders with great severity, for he not only plundered the country without mercy, but sentenced all the inhabitants whom he made prisoners to the ignominious death of the cross. This filled the survivors with such indignation, that both they and their descendants, ever afterward, bore an inveterate hatred to the Carthaginians.

Whilst Massinissa, at the head of a Numidian army, was assisting the Carthaginians in Spain, his father Gala died, and his brother Desalces took possession of the throne. That prince dying also, soon after his accession, the sovereignty devolved on Capusa, his eldest son, whose reign was speedily terminated by the successful revolt of one Mezetulus, a person of the royal blood, but an implacable enemy to the family of Gala.

To support himself in his usurpation, Mezetulus espoused Hannibal's niece, and sent ambassadors to conclude a treaty of alliance with Syphax.

Meanwhile, the warlike Massinissa receiving intelligence of his father's death, his cousin's unhappy fate, and the usurpation of Mezetulus, hastened to the court of Bochar, king of Mauritania, and obtained a body of four thousand Moors, to escort him to the confines of his paternal kingdom. The news of his approach spread with astonishing rapidity through the country, and the Numidians flocked

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from all parts, to enlist beneath his banner. He was soon in a condition to give battle to the usurper, and an engagement ensued, which terminated in the recovery of the crown by the lawful heir. The conqueror used his fortune with becoming moderation.

But Numidia was soon disturbed by new commotions. Syphax marched, at the head of a numerous army, to recover a district, which had long been disputed between him and Gala, and fell upon the Massylians with such resistless fury, that their forces were soon dispersed, and their king driven from the throne. In this exigence, Massinissa retired, with a small party of cavalry, to the summit of Mount Balbus, and from thence made nocturnal incursions into the Carthaginian territory, which lay contiguous to Numidia, ravaging the district with fire and sword, and enriching his companions with the spoil. To put a final stop to these depredations, Syphax offered an ample reward to any one who should take Massinissa, either dead or alive; and, after some time, sent out one of his most active commanders, named Bochar, to reduce the daring marauders. Bochar, having watched a favourable opportunity, surprised the Massylians, as they were straggling about the country, and attacked them with such success, that many were taken prisoners, and all the rest, with the exception of Massinissa and four others, were put to the sword.

Thus stripped of his inheritance, and deprived of his faithful companions, Massinissa eluded the vengeance of his enemies, by swimming over a river, and retired with his surviving comrades to a solitary cave, whilst Syphax and the Carthaginians triumphed in his supposed death. In this place he remained undiscovered for some time, but having recovered from his wounds, he boldly advanced to his own frontiers, and raised an army, with which he soon reinstated himself in his kingdom, and even made an incursion into that of the Massæsyli.

Syphax, provoked at this daring enterprise, assembled a body of troops, and formed a strong encampment upon a

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ridge of hills, between Hippo and Cirta, whilst his son, Vermina, was despatched with a considerable force, to attack the enemy in the rear. Massinissa prepared for his defence, and inspired his soldiers with such resolution, that the whole army performed prodigies of valour; but being unexpectedly assailed in the rear, and overpowered with numbers, they were routed with so dreadful a slaughter, that only Massinissa with sixty horse escaped. Despairing not, however, of his fortune, Massinissa wandered on the confines of his kingdom, ready to make use of the first opportunity which should offer for his re-establishment. Nor did he neglect that presented him by the arrival of Lælius in Africa, and he became, from that moment, invariably attached to the Romans. They restored him to his kingdom, or rather, by their assistance he again conquered it.

Massinissa proved one of the most powerful and fortunate princes of Africa. After a youth of misfortune, he preserved to the end of a very long life, that robust health for which he was indebted to exercise and temperance. He performed at ninety years of age, the usual exercises of young men, mounting his horse without assistance, and remaining whole days on it without a saddle. At his death, which happened between his ninetieth and ninety-fifth year, his youngest child was only five years old. He left fifty-four sons, three only of whom were born in marriage. They each succeeded him in a portion of his kingdom. Micipsa had the government and exclusive possession of the capital; Gulussa, the regulation of war department; and Mastanabal, that of justice; each possessing the title of king. This distribution was made by Scipio Æmilianus, to whom Massinissa at his death recommended his kingdom. The Romans probably saw in the character of the three brothers the propriety of their disposition. The warrior and administrator of justice died; and the latter, leaving a son, named Jugurtha, Micipsa had him educated in his palace with his young sons, Adherbal and Hiempsal.

It is not to be doubted, but that Micipsa, who had the reputation of being a mild and wise prince, discovered the

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bad disposition of his nephew, since it is believed he endeavoured to get rid of him. He gave him the most perilous commissions, and exposed him to dangers in war, from which by his valour and ability he extricated himself. His success gained him the general esteem; his features were regular, his person well formed, and his mind adorned with talents and information. An enemy to luxury, and pleasure, he performed his exercises with those of his own age, throwing the javelin, and mounting on horseback with them; and though he surpassed all, yet he knew how to render himself beloved. His sole amusement was the chase. Lions and other wild animals were his antagonists, and to conclude his eulogium, "he excelled in every thing, and spoke little of himself." Such was Jugurtha; and with these attractive qualities, a monster of cruelty, ingratitude, and deceit.

Whether Micipsa changed his opinion respecting his nephew, or hoped to soften his disposition by benefits and confidence, he adopted him as a child, and by his will declared him heir to his crown, conjointly with his two sons, Hiempsal and Adherbal, whom he recommended to him with his dying breath. Jugurtha promised every thing, but his uncle no sooner expired, than he caused his cousin Hiempsal to be assassinated, and Adherbal would have experienced the same fate, had he not fled to Rome, where he implored the vengeance of the senate on the murderer of his brother, and its protection for himself. The assassin, when he sacrificed his cousin, had seized on the treasures of the crown. These he made use of for his justification at Rome, and even retorted the accusation on Adherbal, charging him with being an accomplice in a plot, laid by the two brothers against him. Adherbal pleaded his cause in the most pathetic manner before the senate, but notwithstanding the obvious justice of his complaints, a majority of the conscript fathers having been corrupted by the ambassadors of Jugurtha, pronounced him guilty of exciting the late troubles; asserted that Hiempsal had been killed by the Numidians for his excessive severity; and palliated

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the inhuman proceedings of the usurper. Some of the senators, indeed, expressed their detestation of this venal conduct, and insisted upon bringing Jugurtha to condign punishment, but their exertions being overruled, the best part of Numidia was allotted to the latter, and Adherbal was obliged to rest satisfied with the residue.

Emboldened by the behaviour of the senate on this occasion, Jugurtha resolved to pursue his ambitious designs. He accordingly attacked his cousin by open force—plundered his territories—stormed several of his fortresses—defeated his troops in a pitched battle—and at length invested his metropolis. Adherbal, having despatched deputies to Rome, to complain of these outrages, expected succour from the men whose friendship he had been always taught to prize above all the treasures and troops in the world. But in this he was fatally disappointed, for though two deputations arrived from Italy, to effect an accommodation, and threaten Jugurtha with the resentment of their republic, unless he raised the siege of Cirta, the power of gold proved irresistible, and the unfortunate Adherbal was left to the mercy of his barbarous relative, who, having effected the reduction of the city, caused him to be put to a cruel death, and massacred the Numidian inhabitants without pity or distinction.

Upon the first news of this tragical event, the Romans inveighed bitterly against the venality of their senators, and clamoured incessantly for the punishment of the murderer. An army was accordingly raised for the invasion of Numidia, under the command of the consul, Calphurnius Bestia, who landed without opposition in Africa, and carried on the war for some time with great vigour; but, upon the arrival of Scaurus, a conference took place between the Roman generals and Jugurtha, in which the latter obtained a peace upon advantageous terms.

The indignation of the Roman populace being rekindled by this scandalous treaty, the prætor Cassius was sent to invite Jugurtha to Rome, that he might discover which of the senators had been seduced by the influence of corrup-

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tion. Thither Jugurtha readily went. While there, he found means to corrupt Bæbius Salca, a man of great authority among the plebeians, and contrived to get Massiva, an illegitimate son of Micipsa assassinated in the streets of the city.

Having by this nefarious action, exposed himself to the resentment of the Romans, he hastened back to his own dominions, and was soon followed by an army under the command of the consul Albinus, who had flattered himself with reducing Numidia before the expiration of his consulate. His design, however, was frustrated by the artifices of Jugurtha, and his inactivity rendered him suspected of having betrayed his country, after the example of his predecessors. The command of the army was then vested in his brother, Aulus, but this general was still more unfortunate; for, having marched his troops into a narrow defile, whence it was impossible to extricate himself, he was obliged to submit to the ignominous ceremony of passing under the yoke, and to quit the country within ten days. This infamous treaty, however, being concluded without the consent of the republic, was declared void, and the Roman forces retired into Africa Propria, where they took up their winter quarters.

The command of the army was next conferred on Lucius Metellus, who acted with such resolution in the discharge of his commission, that the sanguinary usurper soon experienced a melancholy reverse of fortune. He was defeated in a pitched battle, and compelled to take shelter in the most dreary part of his dominions.

About this time, Bomilcar and Nabdalsa were persuaded by Metellus to assassinate Jugurtha, but the design was discovered and the conspirators suffered death. The plot had, indeed, such an effect upon his mind, that he was ever after tormented by fear and jealousy, and destroyed such numbers of his friends on ill grounded suspicion, that he soon found himself destitute of counsellors, generals, or any other persons capable of carrying on the war. All his movements were consequently unsuccessful, his troops were

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harassed with fruitless and contradictory evolutions, and in the first battle with Metellus he was utterly routed.

Metellus pursued the Numidian fugitives to Thala, and attacked the city with such vigour, that Jugurtha thought proper to retire into Gætulia, where he raised a considerable force, and obtained some powerful succours from Bocchus, king of Mauritania.

Marius, having in the meantime, been promoted to the consulate, landed with a numerous body of forces at Utica, where he cut off great numbers of the Gætulian marauders, and defeated several of Jugurtha's parties; and after reducing different places of less importance, marched against the city of Capsa, which he delivered up to military execution, and then razed it to the ground. This exploit struck so much terror into the Numidians, that many towns of considerable strength either opened their gates, or were evacuated at the approach of Marius; while others, that presumed to resist, were laid in ashes, and the greatest part of Numidia was desolated and literally covered with blood.

Jugurtha, perceiving his inability to repel so formidable an enemy, had recourse to his usual method of bribery, and distributed his gold so successfully among the Mauritanian ministers, that Bocchus, after some hesitation, consented to assist him with his whole power, and accordingly marched together with the Numidian army against Marius, as he was retiring into winter quarters. But the Roman general obtained a complete victory, and the host of barbarians, consisting of ninety thousand men, was almost entirely destroyed. Sylla, the lieutenant of Marius, distinguished himself in an extraordinary manner upon this occasion, and thus laid the foundation of his future greatness.

Bocchus, regarding Jugurtha's condition as altogether desperate, and dreading the vengeance of the Romans, now thought proper to provide for the safety of his own dominions by offering terms of accommodation. After some time, he consented to deliver the king of Numidia into the hands of Sylla, by which means a termination was put to this sanguinary and expensive war. For this important ser-

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vice, Bocchus was remunerated with the country of the Massæsyli, which, from this time, bore the name of New Mauritania. The whole kingdom of Numidia also assumed a new form, being divided into three parts, two of which were given to Hiempsal and Mandrestal, both descendants of Massinissa, and the third annexed to Africa Propria, which had been made a province by Rome on a former occasion.

On the first day of the new year, Jugurtha was led through the streets of Rome by the triumphant Marius, and exposed to the view of a people whose indignation had been raised to the highest pitch by his wanton and unnatural cruelties. Plutarch observes, that upon this occasion the captive tyrant became distracted; that when he was remanded to prison, his distress was greatly augmented by the insults of the spectators, some of whom stripped him of his clothes, while others tore off his golden pendant, with such force as to bring away the tip of his ear; and that when he was cast almost naked into the dungeon, he forced a ghastly smile, and exclaimed, "O heavens, how intolerably cold is this bath of yours." In this situation he struggled for some time with the pangs of extreme hunger, and then expired: his two sons survived him, but passed their lives in captivity at Venusia.

Numidia took part in the quarrels of Marius and Sylla, and afterwards in those of Cæsar and Pompey. Each had Numidian cavalry in his army. Juba, one of the last monarchs sincerely attached to Pompey, was defeated in assisting him, and fearing to fall into the hands of Cæsar, after he had lost the battle, caused one of his slaves to destroy him. Under Augustus and his successors, the Numidians became subject to the Romans as much as was possible for a people like them, impatient of the yoke of servitude, uncurbed like their coursers, and like them revolting at the bit and bridle.

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MAURITANIA,

So called from the Mauri, an ancient people, frequently mentioned by old historians, runs along the strait which divides Africa from Spain. It was bounded by the Mediterranean on the north, by the Molucha on the east, by Gætulia on the south, and by the Atlantic ocean on the west. It contained several cities of note, and was famed for a luxuriant produce of grapes, apples, and other productions.

The Mauritanians are said to be descended from Phut, the son of Ham. The Phœnicians, however, planted colonies among them, in very early ages; and it is probable that the Arabs had a place among the most ancient inhabitants of their country.

Their government seems to have been monarchical, from the earliest ages; for we are told by Justin, that Hanno, a Carthaginian nobleman, in order to accomplish some ambitious designs, had recourse to the king of the Mauri; and the great figure which the Mauri made in Africa, before the Romans became formidable in that country, render it probable that most of them were united under one sovereign.

Their religion cannot now be satisfactorily described; its peculiarities having been for many ages buried in oblivion. It appears, however, that Neptune was one of their principal objects of adoration—that the sun and moon were worshipped after the manner of the other Libyan nations—and that human victims were occasionally sacrificed to their gods. Their language seems to have differed from that of Numidia only as a dialect of one tongue does from another.

Of their arts and sciences, historians have said but little. It is evident, however, that they had some knowledge of nautical affairs. They applied themselves, in the earliest

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ages, to the study of magic, sorcery, and divination; and Cicero informs us, that Atlas first introduced astrology, and the doctrine of the sphere, into Mauritania—a circumstance which, probably, gave rise to the fable of Atlas bearing the heavens upon his shoulders. Neptune, who reigned in this country, is also said to have first fitted out a fleet, and invented lofty ships with sails, so that the Mauritanians must have possessed some ideas of astronomy, astrology, geography and navigation, at a very early period.

The Mauritanians were strangers to the art of husbandry, and roved about the country, like the ancient Scythians, or Arabes Scenitæ. Their tents, or mapalia, were so extremely small, that they could scarcely breathe in them, and their principal food consisted of corn and herbage, which they ate green, without any preparation. They are said to have possessed considerable skill in the preparation of poisons, and perpetual exercise rendered them very expert in hurling the dart. Their soldiers bore a remarkably savage appearance, being clad in the skins of lions, bears or leopards, and carrying targets or bucklers, made of elephants' hides. Their horses were small, but exceedingly swift, and so perfectly under command, that they would follow their riders like dogs.

The two first princes of Mauritania, after Neptune, mentioned by historians, were Atlas and Antæus. Both ruled with despotic authority over great part of Africa—both are said to have been overcome by Hercules—and both are celebrated for their superior knowledge in the celestial sciences.

Antæus is said to have evinced the most undaunted bravery and resolution in his war with Hercules, and to have achieved some important advantages; but that famous warrior, having intercepted a numerous body of Libyan forces, defeated him with great slaughter, and thus made himself master of the kingdom and royal treasures: hence arose the fable, that Hercules took Atlas's globe upon his

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shoulders—vanquished the dragon that guarded the orchards of the Hesperides, and took possession of all the golden fruit.

Nothing worthy of notice is related of the Mauritanians, from the defeat of Antæus to the time of Bogud, who, in conjunction with Publius Sitius, contributed very considerably to Cæsar's successes in Africa, and rendered him some important services, when the memorable victory of Munda annihilated the Roman republic. After the death of that illustrious general, he joined Mark Antony against Octavius, and endeavoured to make a diversion in favour of the former in Spain, but whilst he was engaged in this expedition, the Tingitanians revolted from their allegiance, and bestowed the sovereignty upon Bocchus, who was confirmed in his new dignity by the emperor. After making some unsuccessful efforts for the recovery of this part of his dominions, Bogud was slain by Agrippa, at Methona; and Tingitania soon afterwards became a Roman province.

The younger Juba received the two Mauritanias from the munificence of Augustus, who also gave him in marriage the princess Cleopatra, (daughter of Antony, and the famous queen of Egypt.) This prince, having received a liberal education at Rome, imbibed such a variety of knowledge, as afterwards enabled him to vie with the most learned natives of Greece. He was remarkably well acquainted with the Assyrian, Arabic, Greek, Punic, African, and Latin histories, and wrote some excellent treatises on grammar, painting, natural history, &c. a few fragments of these are still extant. His mild and equitable conduct in the government of Mauritania, is honourably mentioned by ancient writers. He conciliated the esteem of his subjects so effectually, that they erected a statue to his memory, and retained a grateful recollection of his administration.

He was succeeded by his son Ptolemy, in whose reign Tacfarinas, a native of Numidia, assembled an army of barbarians and committed many depredations in Africa; but after some time he was defeated by Dolabella, and most

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of his followers put to the sword. Ptolemy was soon afterwards cut off by Caius.

To revenge the death of his beloved master, Ædemon assembled a body of his countrymen and took up arms; but a Roman army being sent against them by the emperor Claudius, they were compelled to desist from their daring enterprise, and in the following year, a treaty was concluded between the adverse generals, by which Mauritania seems to have been delivered up to the Romans, for it was soon afterwards divided into two provinces, the one called Mauritania Tingitana, and the other Mauritania Cæsariensis.

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ABYSSINIA.

The obscure, broken, and dubious annals of Abyssinia, an uncivilized nation, which has never had any influence on the politics, and scarcely any connexion with the commerce of the United States, cannot be very interesting to an American reader. Our view of it, will, therefore, be short. Such of our readers as wish for more ample details of its history, are referred to Bruce's Travels, a work from which we have derived nearly all of the following particulars.

The Abyssinian monarchs, whether from history or tradition, through ignorance or vanity, derive their lineage from Solomon, by the famous queen of Sheba. Josephus gives us a story of her and her son, and places them in Ethiopia, which is another name for Abyssinia. If the queen of Sheba actually reigned in Abyssinia, and if her long and tedious journey was compensated by the blessing of a son and heir to her dominions, as Josephus and Bruce relate, that circumstance may account for the introduction of Judaism into that country. The Abyssinian annals assert, that her return from the court of Solomon was followed by the conversion of her kingdom. The religion of Moses was established on the ruins of Paganism, and the church of Abyssinia was modelled according to the institutions of Jerusalem.

This empire continued the seat of Judaism more than two centuries after the extinction of that system in Palestine, and the most authentic documents assign the three hundred and thirty-third year of our æra, as the period of its conversion to Christianity.

Abyssinia displays no ancient monuments, like those of Egypt: no temples, no pyramids, no hieroglyphical sculptures. It seems, therefore, that the Abyssinians had adopted none of the arts of ancient Egypt; and, that the introduction of Christianity, opening a more frequent intercourse with the civilized world, had contributed more than any

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other event, to raise them above the ordinary level of African barbarism. But after the Arabian conquest of Syria and Egypt, the Ethiopians, surrounded by the enemies of their religion, and shut up in a remote part of Africa, remained above eight hundred years, forgotten by the world. In this sequestered situation, their Christianity was gradually corrupted, their arts and commerce extinguished, and they had almost relapsed into a savage state. In this condition they were found about the commencement of the sixteenth century, by the Portuguese, who, appearing among them as if descended from a distant planet, conciliated their esteem by the similarity of their religion, while an evident superiority in learning and science, in arts and arms, commanded their admiration. The common name of Christians, and the common profession of the religion of Christ, was at first considered as a bond of union. The Portuguese, in that age of commercial enterprise, and of eastern conquest, promised themselves great advantages from the alliance of the Christian emperor of Ethiopia, who might on his part expect their aid against the Mahomedans. An intercourse was opened between Abyssinia and Europe, and an interchange of embassies took place between the shores of the Red Sea and the banks of the Tagus and the Tyber. The Abyssinians, conscious of their defects, formed the rational project of introducing the arts and ingenuity of Europe, and solicited a colony of mechanics and artisans, for the use of the country and the instruction of the people. The public danger also called for the effectual aid of the disciplined soldiers of Europe, to defend an unwarlike people against the inroads of the barbarians, and the invasion of the Turks and Arabs, from the coast of the Red Sea. In this important crisis, about four hundred and fifty Portuguese troops, who displayed in the field the valour of Europeans, and the power of fire arms, repulsed the invaders, and saved Abyssinia. But all the projects of advantage, which both nations might rationally have hoped to derive from their alliance, were defeated by theological disputes, from which neither could obtain any substantial benefit;

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and armies were slaughtered to decide the pious question, whether the Roman Pontiff or the Alexandrian Patriarch should be the head of the Abyssinian church. The emperor was converted to the faith of Portugal and Rome; but lost his crown and his life in a revolt of his subjects. Segued, his successor, avenged his death, and adopted his measures. The emperor, the court, and the clergy acknowledged the supremacy of the pope. Alphonso Mendez, a Portuguese Jesuit, was constituted patriarch of Abyssinia, and his clergy erected their churches in every part of the empire. The religious and political alliance between Ethiopia and Portugal seemed now to be confirmed; but it was soon dissolved, or rather violently broken, by the rash indiscretion of the ecclesiastical chief, who equally forgot the mild doctrines of the gospel and the profound policy of his order. Instead of conciliating the affections of recent converts, and gradually eradicating their prejudices, the new patriarch established a system of persecution against all who remained attached to their ancient rites.

A general spirit of revolt was thus excited against the Portuguese religion, and the government of their emperor. Successive rebellions excited by the Abuna, and his Abyssinian clergy, were extinguished in the blood of the insurgents. After more than half a century of contest, in which both spiritual and temporal arms were employed, the Portuguese were finally expelled from Abyssinia, and the gates of that sequestered realm were for ever shut against the religion, the arts, and the sciences of Europe. From that time, the Abyssinians, again secluded from all intercourse with the civilized world, appear to have passed in a rapid decline towards barbarism. A very small portion of learning, of art, and of science is left: and although the Abyssinian church exists, under the superintendance of the Abuna and the supremacy of the Coptic Patriarch, its doctrines as well as its morals, are extremely corrupted. Fifteen centuries of Christianity have had little influence on their morals and manners, and among these Christians polygamy is frequently practised.

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The political and military transactions of Abyssinia are similar to those of all semi-barbarous nations. Wars, carried on with cruelty, but without skill, against the Arabians and savage tribes of the African interior; perpetual contests between the emperor and the powerful and refractory nobles, frequent rebellions, multiplied treasons, and bloody executions, are the events which mark its pages. The most distinguishing feature of the history of Abyssinia, is the singular spectacle of a Christian empire existing for so many ages in the midst of Pagan and Mahomedan nations, and totally forgotten by the rest of the Christian world.

From a general view of this unique people, we proceed to more particular details. The extensive empire of Abyssinia, is known by various names in different nations; but the inhabitants call it Ityopid or Ethiopia. It extends from six degrees, thirty minutes, to twenty degrees, north latitude, and from twenty-six to forty-five degress, east longitude. It lies entirely in the torrid zone, yet on account of the great rains, forests, mountains, and rivers of this country, there are some districts of it which are as cool and temperate as Carolina, or Georgia. But the vallies and sandy deserts, are extremely hot and scorching. The winds are violent and impetuous, the thunder and lightning awful, alarming, and dangerous; and the rain falls in torrents. The moisture and heat, cover their meadows with perpetual verdure, and their trees with blossoms and fruit at the same time. The soil produces wheat, barley, millet, and other grain; but the principal corn in this country is called teff. It is small and slender, and becomes nutritive and palatable, when made into bread. A plant grows in Abyssinia, which possesses the singular power, by its touch and smell, of throwing all venemous creatures into a torpid insensibility. An esculent, herbaceous plant, called by Bruce ensete, seems analogous to the banana, and serves as an excellent substitute for bread, being wholesome and nutritive. The papyrus, for which Egypt was formerly so famous, is found also in Abyssinia. The sycamore, the

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date tree, the fig, and a large tree which Bruce names rack, and which is used for the building of boats, as well as the trees which yield the balm of Gilead, are described as natives of the country. Coffee is also an Abyssinian as well as an Arabian production.

There is scarcely a country that produces greater abundance, or more variety of animals than Abyssinia. Oxen are here of such prodigious size, that they have been mistaken, at a distance for elephants; and one of their horns is capable of containing more than ten quarts. But besides these large oxen, which are fattened for slaughter, they have others intended for labour and carriage, the horns of which are soft and flexible, and hang down like a broken arm. The horses of Abyssinia are remarkably beautiful, and well made: they are generally used in war, and are very fleet. The elephants remain in a wild state, and are extremely destructive to the corn and grain. Their plains are also ravaged and laid waste by the rhinoceros, as well as by lions and tigers. The hunting of the rhinoceros, forms a considerable part of the amusement of the Abyssinians. Hyænas abound in Abyssinia, particularly in the towns, where from the commencement of darkness till the dawn of day, they prowl in search of the remains of slaughtered carcases, which this cruel and unclean people expose in the streets without burial. The hyæna, accustomed to human flesh, walk about boldly in the day time, and attacks man wherever he finds him, whether armed or unarmed, but his appetite generally leads him to choose the mule, or ass in preference to its rider. The crocodile and hippopotamus abound in the Nile. The former of these amphibious animals is well known; but the latter is almost inaccessible, and is only discovered by the havoc and devastation it occasions. This creature is almost as large as the elephant, and like it is armed with tusks. It has obtained the name of the sea horse, though it partakes more of the nature and quality of the ox. It is much bolder in the water than on land, choosing the former in the day, and the latter at night, and frequently attacks and destroys boats and barges. It

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tears and devours, not so much for the sake of food, as to glut itself with blood; and leaves the carcases to other voracious creatures. It avoids the sight of an armed man, and is terrified at fire arms.

Another source of calamity in this country arises from ravages and desolation of locusts. These small but formidable creatures, occasion famine by devouring the plants and blades of grass, and pestilence by the putrefaction of their dead bodies which cannot all be burned or interred. The Abyssinians have found means to convert them into a kind of food. They are eaten fresh or dried, and reduced to powder, of which a paste is afterwards made, and are said to be agreeable and wholesome.

The Jews have been settled in this country from time immemorial. There are also many Mahomedans and Pagans. The religion of this latter people is very little known, but consists rather in superstitious rites and ceremonies, than in the adoration of idols. The Christians are the most numerous in Abyssinia. Among such a variety of people, a proportionate variety of languages may be expected, and in fact every province, and almost every district, has its own particular dialect.

The Abyssinians, are, in general, well proportioned; they are of a tall majestic stature; are rather brown than fair; have large and sparkling eyes; noses rather high than flat; thin lips, and very white teeth. They are of a sober and temperate disposition, and seldom quarrel with each other. The administration of justice is neither tedious nor complex. Every one pleads his own cause, and when judgment is once given, they faithfully observe the decree without murmur or appeal. Mr. Bruce observes, that marriage is unknown in Abyssinia, unless that may be called matrimony, which is contracted by mutual consent, without any form, and which subsists only till dissolved by consent of each other. When a separation takes place, the children are divided between them. One woman may probably have six or seven husbands successively. They have neither wine nor cider, though they might have abundance of

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the former. Their usual beverage is hydromel, which is a mixture of honey and water, brought into a state of fermentation. The forms of a banquet in Abyssinia, appear peculiar to that country. A cow or bull, we are told, is brought to the door of the room, where the company is assembled; and the dewlap being cut so deep as to arrive at the fat, a few drops of blood are sprinkled on the ground. They then penetrate the skin on the back of the beast, and on each side of the spine, and strip off its hide, halfway down the ribs. All the flesh is then cut off the buttocks in solid square pieces, and eaten raw with teff bread, and the animal continues alive till nearly the whole is consumed. The men are fed by the women, who having wrapped the meat and bread into the form of a cartridge, thrust it into the first mouth they find open and empty.

They were, till lately, unacquainted with the tools employed in different arts; and for them as well as for the means of using them, they were indebted to the Jesuits. When, therefore, they who had never before seen one stone placed above another in a regular manner, beheld a building with high stones, they were astonished at the sight, and called it a house upon a house. Notwithstanding their deficiency of ordinary means, they had cloth stuffs, exceedingly well woven, and jewels of the neatest and most curious workmanship. Silks, brocades, velvets, tapestry, carpets, and other costly stuffs, are brought by the Turks, by the way of the Red Sea, and exchanged for gold dust, emeralds and valuable horses, together with skins, furs, leather, honey, wax, ivory and abundance of superfluities. Notwithstanding the productions of the country, Abyssinia is poor.

They have neither inns nor public houses for the entertainment of strangers, but considering their extreme indigence, they are very liberal and hospitable. A stranger need only enter the first hut or tent he likes, and acquaint the owner with his wants, when he is immediately furnished with all necessaries and conveniences from the chief of the place. The women have no occasion for the aid of a midwife during parturition: they bring forth with great

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facility, and suckle their children without trouble or embarrassment. Notwithstanding the various changes of their climate, from the extremes of sultry and burning heats, to the violent and continual rains and inundations which happen in Abyssinia, the people are remarkable for longevity.

This empire is equally fertile in mineral, as in animal and vegetable productions. The Abyssinians possess mines of gold, but prudently conceal this treasure from strangers, rather than hazard the subjugation of their country. They gather, however, great quantities of that metal, which is washed down by the torrents from the mountains, and sometimes consists of large grains. Silver is more scarce among them; but they have mines of lead and iron, which are very valuable. They work little, indeed, in their mines, and are satisfied with the quantity of metal they find on the surface of the ground.

Salt is dug from rocks in the shape of bricks, but of different sizes and weights; that which is on the surface of the rock is hard and solid; but in the internal parts of the mine, it is extracted from saline springs, where it is soft, till consolidated by the heat of the sun. This article, though very common, is considered no less valuable; and it is usual to carry a small piece of it, suspended in a bag, from the girdle. When two friends, or acquaintances meet, they produce their bits of salt, and give them to each other to lick. The refusal of this compliment, on either side, would be considered as a gross affront, or at least as a mark of incivility.

The natural curiosities of Abyssinia are, its lofty and almost inaccessible mountains, in comparison with which the Alps and Apennines are mere hillocks. They are of very great service to this country, which, without these impenetrable barriers, would long since have become the possession of the Turks and Gallas, or other hostile nations. Whilst their awful and inaccessible summits seem to reach above the highest clouds, the vallies beneath appear to hide themselves in the lowest abysses of the earth. The sides of these mountains are steep precipices, down which the

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torrents roll great stones with a loud and tremendous noise; and on their summits are plains, where towns appear to have been built. Some parts of these mountains have also been converted into prisons, where the first children of their kings, whose competition for the throne was apprehended to be productive of mischief, were kept in confinement, where they languished in solitude and misery.

The beautiful rivers which water Abyssinia have their rise in these mountains. Mr. Bruce's indefatigable labours have tended much to gratify the geographer and the philosopher, relative to the rise and progress of the Nile in Abyssinia. That learned and ingenious traveller discovered its source in the Mountains of the Moon. The inhabitants of this country pay divine honours to the Nile, and offer sacrifices of cattle, to the spirit supposed to reside at its fountain. The hillock which contains the principal stream is surrounded by a shallow trench, and a bank of turf, which serves as an altar for the performance of their religious rites. An interesting account is given by this writer of the venerable appearance of the priest of the Nile. This river has three sources, which soon unite and form one stream.

In its progress, after partial windings, it reaches the famous cataract, near Alata, and exhibits, in passing it, one of the grandest and most magnificent spectacles in the world. The noise of the Nile, precipitated over this dreadful cataract, resembles the loudest thunder, and may be heard at an almost incredible distance. Below the cataract, the river runs in a narrow channel, between two rocks, with loud noise and impetuous velocity. After passing along for many leagues, it forces a passage through an opening of mountains, and precipitates its waters over a frightful cataract, whose height is not less than two hundred and eighty feet. Terror and amazement seize the mind of the traveller, on beholding such an assemblage of waters, dashed with the sound of thunder, from such a dreadful and stupendous height, into a vast and rocky basin below, from whence the foam of the precipitated billows rebounds to the clouds.

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After receiving many tributary streams, and passing over seven cataracts, in its various windings, it enters Egypt.

The government of Abyssinia has been always monarchical, and entirely despotic. There are no written laws to restrain the exorbitant power of the prince, or to defend and secure the privileges and property of the subject; and the clergy have been the only persons who have ever dared to resist the unjust proceedings of the emperor. These princes boast that they are descendants of Menilek, or David, the son of the great Solomon, by the queen of Sheba. They also carry in their arms the lion of Judah, holding a cross, with this legend inscribed: "The lion of the tribe of Judah has conquered."

The respect which is paid to the emperor is very great, and none of his subjects approach him, without exhibiting marks of the most abject submission and servility.

The crown of Abyssinia is hereditary, and must devolve on the posterity of Menilek, their first monarch; but the succession does not necessarily pass to the eldest. The emperor, if he thinks proper, can make choice of a younger son, whom he deems more worthy, or is more inclined to favour.

This custom has frequently occasioned a jealousy and misunderstanding between the young princes, and has sometimes been the cause of civil wars, and in all probability gave rise to the practice of confining those who had a right to the throne, upon the top of a mountain. Neither message nor letter can be conveyed to these unfortunate prisoners; and they are obliged to dress themselves in the usual garb of the common people, lest they should become proud and ambitious.

The ceremony of the coronation of their king is grand and magnificent. Much of the performance consists in religious rites, such as reading the liturgy, and singing psalms and hymns suitable to the occasion. The grand almoner announces the monarch to the people, and informs them that he is made choice of to govern them. The duty of a sove-

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reign is read and explained to the emperor, who takes an oath that he will discharge it with justice and moderation. He is then anointed by the metropolitan, who invests him with the royal robes, places a crown of gold and silver on his head, and puts the sword of state into his hands; after which he is saluted emperor of Abyssinia, and received by the people with loud and repeated acclamations. The king, having assisted at divine service, and taken the holy communion, the ceremony terminates in acts of festivity.

The emperors, in imitation of Solomon, from whom they boast to be descended, allow themselves a plurality of wives, of different religions; insomuch, that both Christianity and Paganism have been encouraged at the same time.

Of these wives, the prince chooses one, whom he causes to be proclaimed empress, and who enjoys superior privileges.

The Abyssinian emperors receive holy orders, and some of them have been consecrated priests, and officiated in that capacity; but with this restriction, that if by any means they shed the blood of man, they are immediately divested of their office.

The abuna's principal employment is ordination. A number of men and children present themselves at a distance, and there stand, not daring to approach him. He then asks who they are, and being told that they are persons who wish to become deacons, he makes two or three signs with a cross, and blows with his mouth twice or thrice upon them, saying, "Let them be deacons."

In all matters, excepting those which regard the discipline of the church, the emperor enjoys absolute and uncontrolled authority over the lives and property of his subjects.

It was formerly the custom of the emperor not to appear in public, and at present, the Abyssinian monarch is never seen to walk, nor to set his foot on the ground, out of his own palace; and when he would dismount from the horse or mule on which he rides, a servant attends him with a stool, who places it properly to receive him. He rides into

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the antichamber, where his throne stands, or to the alcove of his tent.

Instead of a favourite minister, a chief officer is created, whom they call ras, or principal, and who is generalissimo of the forces.

All places of honour or authority, are bought and sold to those who bid the greatest prices for them; insomuch, that the purchasers, in order to profit by the bargains they make, are obliged to oppress those who are under them; and hence these governors and officers become plunderers, rather than protectors of the people. Nor can the injured and oppressed obtain any redress of their grievances; for though appeals are admitted from the inferior to the superior courts, and from thence to the emperor himself, yet few dare to venture on such an attempt, from the consequences which commonly follow.

As all employments, both civil and military, are disposed of by purchase, we need not be at a loss to judge how the troops are commanded, and in what manner justice is administered. The forms of proceeding in their courts of law are wisely established. Neither counsellors nor attornies are permitted to impeach or implead any man. The plaintiff and defendant argue their own cause, and the judge having consulted the opinion of the assembly, passes sentence accordingly; but he is not compelled to follow the general sentiments of the people.

In criminal cases, if the accused be found guilty, he is imprisoned by the judge, till he has made sufficient restitution and satisfaction to the person he had injured; or if the crime be capital, he is delivered into the hands of the accuser, to be punished with death, at his discretion. When a murder cannot be sufficiently proved against any man, all the inhabitants of the place where it was committed, are severely fined, or condemned to some corporal punishment; which prevents the concealment, and not unfrequently the perpetration of crimes.

The king of Abyssinia very often judges capital crimes himself. That judicature is reckoned favourable, where the

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judges is slow to punish, and ready to reward. No man is condemned to suffer death by the king in person, for the first offence, unless he shall have committed parricide, or sacrilege, or some other dreadful crime. In general, the life and merits of the prisoner are considered, and opposed to his immediate guilt, and the decision is made accordingly. When the prisoner is condemned for any capital offence, he is not remitted to prison, a proceeding which is thought cruel, but is immediately executed conformably to his sentence. The greatest punishments in this country are the cross excoriation, or the flaying alive, and lapidation or stoning to death. Another barbarous punishment is plucking out the offenders eyes, a cruelty which is frequently committed in Abyssinia, and is generally inflicted on rebels and disaffected persons. The dead bodies of criminals executed for treason, murder, and violence on the highway, are seldom buried; the streets of Gondar are strewed with pieces of their carcases, which bring wild beasts in multitudes into the city as soon as it becomes dark, insomuch that it is scarcely possible for any person to walk in safety during the night. "The dogs," says Mr. Bruce, "used to bring pieces of human bodies into the house and court-yards, in order to eat them with greater security. This was most disgustful to me, but so often repeated, that I was obliged to leave them in possession of such fragments."

The army of the emperor is by no means equal to the extent of his dominions, nor indeed to the exigences of the government. The largest army which the king of Abyssinia ever brought into the field at any one time, exclusive of his household troops, did not amount to more than fifty thousand men.

The neglect of discipline is the cause of the inefficiency of the Abyssinian troops, for they are in general stout, hardy, and able to endure hunger and fatigue. The revenues of the king, are by no means inconsiderable, were they faithfully collected and deposited in the treasury; but they pass through so many hands, and there are so many exempted

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of privileged persons, that the amount which is received is very trifling.

In the church of Abyssinia, there are different kinds of degrees. The depseras are neither priests nor deacons, but a sort of Jewish Levites, or chanters.

As they boast that they are descended from the Jews, they pretend to imitate the service of the Jewish tabernacle, and temple of Jerusalem, and the dancing of king David before the ark.

There are more churches in Abyssinia than in any other country; five or six may be seen in one view; and five times the number from an elevated situation. Wherever a victory has been gained, there a church is erected. The site of these edifices is always near a running stream, for the convenience of purifications and ablutions, in which the Abyssinians strictly observe the Levitical law. They are frequently placed on the summit of a hill, surrounded entirely with cedar. The churches are of a circular form, and have thatched roofs, the tops of which are perfect cones. The inner part consists of several divisions, according to the regulations prescribed in the law of Moses.

The Abyssinians pay a great respect to these sacred edifices, and always enter them barefoot. The prayers, psalms, and hymns, which are used in divine service, are suited to the occasion, judiciously composed, and performed with great decency and devotion.

They make no use of the apostles creed; but receive the same books of the old and new testament as canonical, which are so acknowledged by the American churches.

For two hundred and forty years, there was a succession of kings of the Solomonic race; of this period very little is known, but it appears to have been chiefly past in wars with their neighbours, and insurrections among themselves, the particulars of which are not worthy of historical notice.

The cities of Abyssinia are few and insignificant.

Gondar, the present capital, is described by Bruce as containing ten thousand houses, built chiefly of clay, and

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thatched with reeds, the roofs being of a conical form. It is surrounded by a strong stone wall, comprising within a square of about an English mile and a half in circuit, not only the palace itself, but all the contiguous buildings. This wall, which is thirty feet high, has battlements and a parapet, on which is a walk round the whole enclosure.

Axum is generally understood to have been the ancient capital of Abyssinia. The relics of its splendour are still visited. There is also a large Gothic cathedral, which is falling to decay. The town itself is now inconsiderable.

Dixan is chiefly remarkable for its singular situation, and the infamous trafic carried on by its inhabitants. These are a mixture of Mahomedans and Christians, and their only trade is that of selling children. The Christians bring hither such as they have stolen in Abyssinia, and the Mahomedans receiving them, carry them to the market at Massuah, from whence they are sent into Arabia, and other countries. The priests in the province of Tigre, are openly concerned in this abominable traffic.

Massuah is the only port in Abyssinia. It is situated on an island of the same name, in the Red Sea, at a very small distance from the shore, and contains about twenty houses of stone. The rest of the edifices are constructed of poles, and covered with grass. The town, however, carries on a considerable trade.

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HOTTENTOTS.

The country of the Hottentots, the southern extremity of Africa, is situated between the twenty-eighth and thirty-fifth degrees of south latitude. The Hottentot nations are sixteen in number, but all agree in the general outlines of their character. The soil, in general, is so rich, as to be capable of producing every species of grain, herbs, and fruit. The country about the Cape, is full of rocks and mountains, but their spacious summits are clothed with rich pasture, enamelled with a variety of flowers of the most exquisite beauty and fragrance, and abound with delicious springs, which flow down the slopes and meander through the vallies. The plains which intervene, are as beautiful as the imagination can conceive.

The Cape of Good Hope was first discovered by the Portuguese, in the year one thousand four hundred and ninety-three, but they established no settlement nearer to it than on the banks of the Great Fish river. About the year one thousand six hundred, almost every European nation began to visit the Cape, in the course of its voyages to the East Indies. In one thousand six hundred and twenty, a formal possession of it was taken by two commanders of the East India company, in the name of James, king of Great Britain; but it was no further noticed, at that time by the English government. In one thousand six hundred and fifty, captain Van Riebeck having touched at this place, with a Dutch fleet, represented the great national advantages which might accrue from establishing a colony at the Cape of Good Hope. In consequence of these representations, the directors of the Dutch East India company, fitted out four ships for the expedition, appointed Van Riebeck, commander in chief, and vested him with full powers to treat with the Hottentots, and to make such discretionary stipulations as might conduce to the interest of the republic and of the company. Having arrived at the Cape, the

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Dutch commander presented the natives with a vast quantity of toys, trinkets, and liquors to the value of fifty thousand guilders, upon which the Hottentots charmed with his generosity, gave them permission to settle among them, and resigned a part of the country in their favour.

The difficulties which for a time impeded the extension of the settlement, were principally occasioned by the wild beasts of various kinds which abounded in every part of the country. Deprived, by their passion for intoxicating liquors and baubles, of the only means of existence, the natives began rapidly to decline in number, and the encroachments of the settlers, were in proportion to the diminution of obstacles. No land was granted in property, except in the vicinity of the Cape. A law was passed that the nearest distance from one house to another, should be three miles; and on account of the scarcity of water, it frequently happened that many farms were much further distant from each other.

In one thousand seven hundred and ninety-five, the Dutch colony at the Cape surrendered to the arms of his Britannic majesty; but at the general peace of one thousand eight hundred and one, it was restored to its former possessors; with this agreement, that the port should be open to the commerce and navigation of the English and French nations. No permanent limits had been fixed to the colony, under the Dutch government: but during the period in which it was held by Great Britain, the territory composing the settlement of the Cape of Good Hope was defined; and its mean length from west to east was found to be five hundred and fifty, and its mean breadth from south to north, two hundred and thirty-three English miles, comprehending an area of one hundred and twenty-eight thousand, one hundred and fifty square miles. This great extent of country, if we deduct the population of Cape Town, is probably peopled by about fifteen thousand white inhabitants; insomuch that every individual possesses eight and one-half square miles of ground.

It has been supposed that the Hottentots are the descend-

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ants of the ancient Troglodytes, who were the posterity of Abraham by his wife Kethura. It is conjectured by a late writer, who travelled through this country, that they will become extinct. Various, it seems, are the causes which have contributed to the depopulation of this people; among which may be reckoned the impolitic custom of hording together in families; their extreme poverty, and the cruel treatment they receive from an inhuman and unfeeling peasantry.

The language of the Hottentots, it is generally supposed, cannot be acquired by any European; but the difficulty of speaking it, which is chiefly occasioned by the action of the tongue, is soon overcome. Most of the Dutch peasantry in the distant districts have learned it; and many of them are so much accustomed to its use, that they introduce into their own language a motion of the organ of speech, sufficiently distinct to show from whence they obtained it.

The person of a Hottentot, while young, is by no means void of symmetry and beauty. They are well-proportioned and erect. No protuberance of muscle indicates strength; but the body is delicately formed, and marks the effeminacy and inactivity of the mind. They have large heads, lively eyes, a flat nose, thick lips, teeth white as ivory, hair resembling that of negroes and exceedingly black, and large broad feet. The colour of the skin is a yellowish brown, and not unlike a faded leaf, but very different from the sickly hue of a person in the jaundice, which it has been said to resemble. Some of the women, when young, and previously to their bearing children, might serve as models of perfection in the human figure. Their hands and feet are remarkably small and delicate; and in their gait they are not altogether devoid of grace.

The Hottentots are subject to no particular disease. Life is generally terminated by a gradual decay, and at an earlier period of existence than in most countries of a like temperature. It is rare to see a Hottentot sixty years of age. When a man has become old and infirm, the son, or nearest relation, assembles all the male inhabitants of the

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kraal, or hamlet; informs them of his miserable condition; and requests that they will expel him from the society. This demand is always complied with. Having placed the decrepid old man upon an ox, a great part of the inhabitants accompany and conduct him to a hut erected for the purpose, in some remote and solitary spot. Here they deposit a few articles within his reach, and then depart, and leave this miserable outcast of society to perish of age and hunger, if he is not devoured by wild beasts.

Low, however, as they are sunk in the scale of humanity, their character seems to be much traduced and misrepresented. They are, in general, a mild, quiet, and timid people; entirely harmless, honest, and faithful; and, though occasionally phlegmatic, they are kind and affectionate to each other, and not incapable of strong attachments. A Hottentot would divide the last morsel he had with his companions. They are not defective in talent, but possess little exertion to call it into action. Their indolence is a real disease, the only remedy of which is terror. Rather than have the trouble of procuring food by the chase, or of digging the ground for roots, they will fast the whole day, provided they may be allowed to sleep. Eating and sleeping form their highest gratifications; and when they cannot indulge in the former, they generally find immediate relief in the latter. "To think," says the Hottentot, "is to labour, and to labour is the scourge of life."

The Hottentot women, like those of most other nations, are fond of finery, and have their necks, arms, and legs, loaded with glass-beads; but the largest and most splendid of these ornaments are bestowed on a little apron, about seven or eight inches in width, which hangs from the waist, and scarcely reaches the middle of the thigh. A vast number of Dutch toys and trinkets are constantly imported, of which these people are extravagantly fond, and for which they foolishly barter their cattle and most valuable property.

They eat the entrails of beasts, after depriving them of impurities, and washing them in clean water. But, besides the flesh of cattle and certain wild animals, they also sub-

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dist on fruits and roots. They boil their meat after the European manner, but roast it differently. Few, however, are at any trouble in cooking their victuals; and they more generally prefer raw meat, which they tear in pieces with their fingers, and eat so voraciously, that the very sight of them is sufficient to nauseate a delicate stomach. They have some traditionary laws among them, which prohibit the eating of swine's flesh and of fishes without scales. The women are also forbidden to eat the blood of beasts, and the flesh of the mole; but this prohibition extends not to the men. In dressing their food, they use neither salt nor spice; but they are not averse to the highly seasoned viands of the Europeans.

The ordinary beverage of the Hottentots is milk or water, which are the natural liquid productions of their country; but, unfortunately for them, they are great lovers of wine, brandy, and arrack, which, if their circumstances permit, they drink to such excess, that they frequently become victims to this species of intemperance.

The crimes of adultery, robbery, and murder, are considered as capital offences, and punished with death. The culprit is placed in a circle, surrounded by the inhabitants with clubs in their hands, and the moment that sentence is pronounced by the captain of the kraal, he is despatched with their kiri-sticks.

The religion of this people formerly consisted in acknowledging one Supreme Being, whom they called the God of Gods, and the creator and governor of all things, endued, as they believed, with unsearchable attributes and perfections, and whose residence is far above the moon. They offered him, however, neither presents nor victims, but made sacrifices and paid their adorations to subordinate deities, the principal of which was the moon, whom they thus addressed: "We salute thee!—Thou art welcome!—Give us fodder for our cattle, and abundance of milk!" But Mr. Barrow informs us, that no traces of religion are now to be found among them.

Some of the Hottentots, however, have been converted

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to Christianity, especially by the Moravian missionaries established among the Bosjesmans, whose proselytes increased to such a degree, during the time that this colony was in the possession of the English, that it was found necessary to send to Europe for more teachers of the gospel. The converts, on Sundays, regularly attend divine service, and appear at church neat and clean, and the very reverse of the rest of their countrymen; and their deportment is truly devout and commendable. They seem much affected with what is delivered by the missionaries, and tears frequently flow from the eyes of those, to whom the discourse is more particularly addressed.

Having given a concise account of what seemed most remarkable in the manners, policy, and religion of the natives, we shall next proceed to describe Cape Town, and its principal edifices. This capital is pleasantly situated at the head of Table Bay, and affords shelter to ships in the harbour from the winds that blow from the west. The town consists of about eleven hundred houses, built with regularity, and kept in neat order; and is disposed into straight and parallel streets, which intersect each other at right angles. There are three or four squares, in one of which is held the public market; another is the resort of the peasantry, with their waggons, from the remote districts of the colony; and a third serves as a parade, for exercising the troops. Many of the streets are open and airy, and have canals of water running through them, walled, and planted with oaks on each side.

The government of the Cape is composed of eight councils. The first, or grand council, consists of the governor and eight others, who are generally the highest officers in the company's service; the second is the college of justice; the third takes cognizance of all breaches of the peace, and is dependent on the last; the fourth is called the court of marriages, and takes care that all nuptial contracts be entered into with the consent of the parents or guardians of both parties; the fifth is the chamber of orphans; the sixth is the ecclesiastical college; the seventh is the court of

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common council; and the eighth superintends all military regulations. The servants of the Dutch company amount to about six hundred, who are divided into two classes, the qualified and the unqualified; the former are those who compose the administration, and their clerks; the latter are the soldiers, artificers, and menial servants.

The three hills which form the Table Valley, are called the Table Mountain, Lion Mountain, and Wind or Devil's Mountain. The first appearance of so stupendous a mass of naked rocks as the Table Mountain, cannot fail of arresting the attention of every indifferent observer of nature, and must particularly interest that of the mineralogist. The north front of this mountain directly faces Cape Town, in nearly a horizontal line of about two miles in length. The summit resembles the leaf of a table, and appears at a distance smooth and level, but is craggy and uneven. In the middle are several chasms, which give to it the appearance of the ruined walls of some huge and terrible fortress. These walls rise above the level of Table Bay to the height of three thousand five hundred and eighty-two feet; and the east side, which terminates at right angles to the front, is much higher.

The Lion Mountain is contiguous to the sea, extends towards the north, and is separated from Table Mountain by a small chasm. The depredations of time, and the force of torrents, having carried away the looser and less compact parts, the summits of these three mountains have become disunited, but they are still joined at a very considerable elevation above the common base. The height of Lion Mountain is three thousand three hundred and fifteen feet; and the upper part consists of a solid mass of stone, rounded and fashioned similar to a work of art, and from some points of view very much resembles the dome of St. Paul's cathedral in London. The Wind or Devil's Mountain, is two thousand one hundred and sixty feet in height, commands an extensive prospect of the whole surrounding country, and abounds with excellent pastures.

In the Cape colonies is abundance of cattle of every de-

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scription, particularly of cows and sheep. In this country are two species of tame hogs; one of which has no bristles, and was originally imported from the island of Java. Horses, which were at first brought from Persia, are now very numerous. A pound of tobacco will procure a fine fat ox; and sheep and other animals are proportionably cheap.

The wild beasts, however, make terrible havock among the tame animals, and kill vast numbers, merely for the sake of sucking the blood, as they generally leave the carcase untouched. Of these, the lion is the most formidable and destructive, and usually prefers the blood of the Hottentots to that of any other creature. The rhinoceros also attacks men with great fury; and is the most implacable enemy of the elephant, the belly of which it rips open with the horn that protrudes from its snout, and leaves the wounded beast to expire.

Whales are numerous during the winter season in all the bays of Southern Africa, where they are caught with more facility than in the midst of the ocean. They seldom exceed sixty feet in length, and their bones are of little value; but as each fish yields about ten tons of oil, they are deemed of sufficient consequence to attract the attention of a company, which has been established within these few years, for the purpose of carrying on a fishery at Table Bay.

Though timber is extremely rare and expensive, little pains has been taken in the vicinity of Cape Town to promote its cultivation. Plantations, indeed, of stone-pine and white poplar, with avenues of oak-trees, are sometimes seen near the country houses; but the timber they produce is seldom equal to what might be expected from the rapidity of their growth.

Various exotics might, no doubt, be successfully cultivated here. Already, the cotton plant, indigo, the sugar cane, tea and coffee plants, are to be found in different parts of the colony, and seem to flourish as well as many of the indigenous productions.

From the approximation of the Cape olive to the cultivated plant of Europe, it is matter of surprise that the latter

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has never been introduced, since its success appears undoubted, and the colony is destitute of any vegetable oil, that is fit to be applied to culinary purposes.

Many of the tropical, and most of the European fruits are reared at the Cape; and the table is constantly supplied with a variety of choice productions, either green or dry, such as China and mandarin oranges, grapes, figs, guavas, apricots, peaches, pears, pomegranates, apples, quinces, strawberries, walnuts, almonds, chesnuts, and mulberries, all of excellent quality and easy purchase.

The vineyards, fruiteries, and gardens, are commonly divided into squares, and defended from the parching influence of the south-east wind, by cut hedges of quince, oak and myrtle.

Barley, the principal grain in the peninsula, is chiefly raised in open grounds; but beyond the isthmus, and along the western coast, grain is cultivated to great advantage.

The seasons are exactly the reverse of those in Europe. Spring, which commences with September and ends with December, is by far the most agreeable season here, as, indeed, it is in most countries. The summer, from December to the end of March, is rather sultry; the autumn, from March to June, is distinguished by a variety of weather, though generally pleasant towards its close; and the winter, from June to September, is usually rainy, cold, and stormy.

On the summit of the Table Mountain, the temperature is considerably lower than in Cape Town, during the clear weather of winter; and in the summer the difference is still more perceptible, when the head of the mountain is enveloped by a fleecy cloud, not inaptly termed "the table-cloth."

Of all the winds which blow here, the south-east and north-west are the most powerful: the former is extremely violent when the cloud rests upon the mountain, and generally predominates from the end of August, till the middle of May. The latter commences about the end of May, and blows occasionally till the termination of August. The

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approach of winter is generally indicated by the subsidence of the winds, and the disappearance of the fleecy cloud. These tokens are succeeded by heavy dews, thick fogs, and cold north-westerly winds, accompanied by violent storms of thunder, lightning, and rain. At the expiration of three days, however, the atmosphere generally begins to brighten, and the mountains on the continent appear with their tops buried in snow, and a light sprinkling of the same is seen about the head of the table.

The nights are always cool, though the mornings are sometimes close and sultry: a south-east breeze generally springs up about the middle of the day, and gradually dies away as evening approaches. The general standard of the temperature of Cape Town, during the winter months, is from fifty degrees at sun-rise to sixty at noon; and in the middle of summer the thermometer ranges from seventy to ninety.

The barometer varies little compared with what is observed in our climate. The south-east winds rarely occasion an alteration in the tube of more than the fifteen hundredth part of an inch. The regularity of the seasons, indeed, is wonderful here; and by the daily gales which blow over Cape Town, a perpetual circulation of air is kept up, which not only contributes to the comforts, but to the healthiness of the inhabitants, among whom few diseases are known, except such as are the result of pernicious habits.

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AFRICAN ISLANDS.

BOURBON.

The Isle of Bourbon, which is situated in twenty-one degrees of south latitude, and fifty-four of east longitude from London, and about eighty leagues to the eastward of Madagascar, is of an oval form, and ninety miles in circumference. This island is beautifully diversified with hills and vallies, forests and pasturage, and refreshed with a number of delightful springs and rivulets. Though the climate is intensely hot, it is esteemed salubrious, and the air is cooled by the breezes which blow every morning and evening. Bourbon abounds in fruit, herbs, and cattle; it produces excellent tobacco; and a great variety of plants, roots, and spices, grow spontaneously. Many of the trees yield odoriferous gums; while the rivers are well stocked with fish, the coast with land and sea turtles, and every part of the island with neat cattle, hogs, goats, and various beautiful birds. Ambergris, coral, and the most curious shells, are found on the sea shore. On the north and south sides are many good roads for ships; but there is scarcely a harbour in which vessels can ride secure against those dreadful hurricanes, which frequently happen during the monsoons. Indeed, the coast is environed with blind rocks, which render navigation at all seasons dangerous; and on the southern extremity is a volcano, which continually emits flame, smoke, and sulphur, accompanied with a hideous and tremendous noise. This island was discovered by the Portuguese in 1545, who stocked it with hogs and goats, and then deserted it. In 1613, an English commander, named Castleton, having landed on it, was charmed with its beauty and fertility, and bestowed upon it the appellation of the English Forest. The East India Company, however, having never colonized this island, the French took posses-

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sion of it in 1654, and named it the Isle of Bourbon; but a few people of that nation, with several negroes, were all that were left upon it; who having resided there upwards of two years, were brought away by an English vessel, together with a large cargo of tobacco, ambergris, and coral, which they had cultivated and collected during their stay on the island: and it was not till 1672, when the French were compelled to abandon Madagascar, that they established a permanent colony on the island, where they have now three pretty considerable ports: St. Paul; St. Dennis, the residence of the governor; and St. Susanna; at one of which, their East India ships usually touched for refreshment.

Mauritius. On the east of Bourbon is situated the island of Mauritius, which is in twenty degrees of south latitude, and fifty-six of east longitude, and distant a hundred leagues from Madagascar. The Dutch, who first discovered it in 1598, gave it the appellation of Mauritius, in honour of Prince Maurice, who was at that time their stadtholder. It is of an oval form, being about fifty leagues in circumference; and there is a safe and secure harbour, sufficiently deep and capacious for containing fifty large ships. The climate is reckoned healthy and pleasant: and the mountains, some of which are very lofty, produce the finest ebony in the world, and various other trees of great value. A number of rivulets descend from the hills, that are plentifully stocked with fish, and render the soil surprisingly fertile, which produces sugar-canes, tobacco, rice, and various fruits, and affords pasturage for great numbers of cattle.

When the Dutch first took possession of Mauritius, they found it destitute of inhabitants, and even of animals, except deer and goats; but with their usual industry, they rendered it fertile and productive, and the island soon abounded with cattle of almost every description. They resigned it, however, into the hands of the French, in whose possession it has since continued.

Madagascar. We come now to Madagascar, which is

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reckoned by geographers to be not only the largest island of Africa, but of the world, unless New Holland should be thought to fall under the description of an island. Different nations have given it different appellations; the natives call it Madacasck; the Portuguese, St. Laurence; the French, l'Isle Dauphin; and the Nubians, Persians, and Arabians, Serendib. It is situated between the twelfth and twenty-sixth degrees of south latitude, and between the forty-fourth and fifty-first degrees of east longitude from London, and about forty leagues from the continent of Africa. Its length from north to south is nearly one thousand miles; and its breadth, at a medium, two hundred and fifty miles. Between this island and the continent, the sea forms a channel or passage, through which European vessels commonly sail in their voyage to and from India.

The general appearance of the country is pleasant, fertile, and inviting; it is environed by lofty mountains, and diversified by numerous mounts and fruitful plains. The productions are sugar, honey, vegetables, vines, fruit-trees, valuable gums, spices, corn, cattle in great abundance and variety, wild and tame fowls, precious stones, iron, silver, copper, tin, and steel. The pasturage for cattle is excellent, the forests are ever green, and the rivers, some of which are very considerable, are plentifully stocked with fish. To these local advantages we may also add, that the air is esteemed temperate and salubrious.

The natives are commonly tall, well proportioned, and of an olive complexion, which inclines to black. Unlike the negroes of Guinea, their hair is not woolly, though black and curling; their noses are small, but regular; and their lips are of moderate thickness. The general dress consists of a short piece of cotton cloth or silk, wrapped round their waists, which they call a lamber; but persons of rank of both sexes, in addition to this, adorn their wrists with rings of the most valuable metal, and with which they also braid their hair. The women wear lambers or robes, which reach to their feet, and are covered with a garment resembling a strait shift. This covering is commonly made of cotton,

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dyed of a dark colour and trimmed with beads, which are fancifully arranged.

Polygamy is practised throughout the island, and every man enjoys a plurality of wives, according to the extent of his fortune. The most accurate and best informed writers, however, affirm, that the females are exemplary in their conjugal obedience, their amiableness of disposition, and agreeableness of deportment; and the inhabitants, in general, are considered as possessing many virtues, which perhaps are not shaded by greater and more numerous vices, than those which are commonly practised in more refined and civilized countries. The salutation of a superior, which is esteemed most respectful, and is generally used by those who address the prince, is to lick his feet; and this abject mode of submission is also practised by the wives, when their husbands return from the wars, or after a long absence. The art of coinage is utterly unknown among this people; and gold and silver are only made use of in ornamenting the person, or in exchange for other commodities. Their principal riches and resource, therefore, consist in the number and value of their cattle.

The sovereigns of Madagascar affect a great deal of pomp and parade. They exercise an uncontroled and unlimitable power over the lives and fortunes of their subjects, to whom they give audience, sitting cross-legged on a mat. Great numbers of noblemen and slaves continually attend them; and they have a variety of palaces, which, though far exceeding the huts and habitations of the rest of the people, consist only of boards formed by the hatchet, and raised to the height of eight or ten feet.

These princes, however, keep no regular or standing army, but when an emergency demands it, employ vassals for the purpose. Their manner of waging war is by surprise and ambuscade; and when an advantageous opportunity offers, they assemble privately, and attack the enemy unawares, and before he can be made acquainted with their design. They employ spies to discover and make known to them the state and condition of the foe. During the war,

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they frequently change their residence, and their cattle are driven to the highest mountains and the most inaccessible situations. Parties of thirty or forty men are despatched to plunder and destroy the lesser villages, and to make captives of the inhabitants. These marauders, in case of necessity, are generally provided with billets, written in Arabic characters, which they firmly believe will dispel the strength and courage of their enemies, and occasion their defeat. Having taken and burned the town, they make the women and children prisoners, and drive the cattle away. This last transaction closes the contest, unless the vanquished can obtain assistance and make reprisals. The only arms made use of, are lances and hatchets, with a few firelocks, purchased from the Europeans.

Though letters have never been introduced into this country, the laws of Madagascar, which are traditional, and handed down from father to son, are founded in equity, and enforced without partiality or indulgence. Punishments for capital offences are few, and, indeed, seldom necessary; but fines, which are paid in cattle, are frequent, and levied on the slightest and most trivial occasions: Theft is punished by a fine, four times the value of that which is stolen; but if the offender cannot restore cattle to such an amount, he must become the property of the injured person, or forfeit his life. Adultery with the wife of a superior must be expiated by a forfeiture of thirty head of cattle, besides beads and other articles: but with the wife of an equal, by a fine of only twenty. An assault is punished by a fine of fifteen head of cattle.

The religion of these islanders is paganism, and consists of a gross and idolatrous superstition. They acknowledge, however, the existence and superintendance of a Supreme Being, whom they call Deaan Unghorray, and which signifies, "The Lord above;" but they maintain that there are four other subordinate lords, each of whom presides over that part of the world to which he is appointed. These latter are considered as the immediate servants of the great God; and as mediators between him and man; and, there-

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fore, to them they address all their supplications and prayers, and perform their religious sacrifices. It is worthy of observation, that among these ignorant and superstitious people, there exists some faint knowledge of the creation and fall of man; the death of Abel; the deluge; the preservation of Noah and his family; and some other circumstances of a similar nature.

Circumcision is performed in this island, but in a different manner from that of the Jews and Mahometans. The ceremony is preceded by mirth, drinking, and feasting: after which an ox or bull is presented for each child, and fastened to the ground, ready for immolation. The father, or nearest connexion, then takes the child in his arms towards the animal to be sacrificed, and putting its right hand on the bull's right horn, exclaims—"Let the great God above, the lords of the four quarters of the world, and the guardian spirits, prosper and protect this child, and cause him to become mighty; let him equal this bull in strength, and overcome all his enemies." Having thus spoken, the circumciser performs his office; after which the child is delivered to its mother or nearest kin, and a feast concludes the ceremony.

It is evident, from every circumstance of the few religious rites which the inhabitants of Madagascar perform, that they believe in a future state of existence. The memory of their forefathers is cherished by them with the greatest veneration; and, in their funeral solemnities, they exhibit marks of a decent and becoming solemnity. Every family has a place appropriated as a depository for its dead, which is enclosed by a kind of palisadoes, and is never entered without sacrificing an ox or a cow to the manes of the defunct. When any person is to be interred, the principal or chief of the family approaches the entrance of the cemetery; and calling aloud on all the dead deposited there, informs them that such a person is coming to repose among them, and requests they will own him as a friend and relative. This being performed, the gates of the burying ground are opened, and the corpse is deposited in the earth. During

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the latter part of this ceremony, the people without are busied in killing and dividing the cattle, which the surviving friends and relations of the deceased had provided for their entertainment. No particular dress is made use of in mourning for the dead; but on such melancholy occasions they shave the head.

In this island are umosses, or magicians, who pretend to penetrate and understand the most secret powers of nature, and as may be required, to procure the assistance of familiar and supernatural beings; and who make a kind of talismanic composition, which is carried at the head of the army to insure victory and success. These impostors have obtained such credit and reputation among the people, by their pretended power and incantation, that implicit obedience is paid to their injunctions; and no act of importance is undertaken without first consulting their opinion. And though events do not always correspond to their predictions, they are never at a loss to find some plausible and satisfactory reason to account for their failure; and as their conjectures will sometimes necessarily be just and right, a very few instances of this kind serve to insure their future and permanent reputation. In sacred and religious acts and ceremonies, however, these magicians never interfere; and, indeed, every individual considers himself at liberty to adopt or reject the general forms of religion, according to his own disposition and fancy.

Madagascar was first discovered by the Portuguese, in 1506, but they never attempted to colonize it. In 1641, the French usurped the possession of this island, and erected a fort in an advantageous situation, which they denominated Fort Dauphin; but the natives having conceived a violent aversion towards their new neighbours, and being provoked by their tyrannical and arbitrary proceedings, expelled them soon after; and since that period no European nation has ever attempted a similar establishment.

Comora Isles. Between the northern point of Madagascar and the coast of Africa, are situated the Comora Isles, which are placed between forty-one and forty-six de-

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grees of east longitude, and ten and fourteen degrees of south latitude. Their number is five: Johanna, Comora, Mayotta, Mohilla, and Angazeja. Of these, Johanna, the principal, is about thirty miles long and fifteen broad, and abounds with all kinds of provisions and tropical fruits. At this island the East India ships usually touch for refreshments, and meet with an hospitality and kindness from the natives seldom experienced on the continent of Africa. They are negroes, profess the Mahometan religion, and are remarkable for their affability and politeness. Most of the inhabitants are tall, robust, and well proportioned; they have piercing eyes, long and dark hair, and their complexions are between an olive and black colour. They are, in general, a plain, simple, inoffensive people, devoid of ambition, and entirely ignorant of the arts of war.

The island is productive of rice, yams, potatoes, tamarinds, oranges, lemons, pine-apples, cocoa-nuts, honey, black cattle, and goats. The women, in general, are employed in husbandry, and other laborious occupations; whilst the men enjoy ease, and indulge themselves in idleness and luxury. Their usual food is rice, roots, flesh, milk, and fruits. The Arabic language, incorporated with the Zanguebar tongue, is in general use. The town of Johanna consists of about two hundred houses and huts, the former of which are built with stone, and are the property of the king and principal inhabitants; but the latter are constructed of reeds fastened together, covered with a mixture of clay and cow-dung, and thatched with cocoa-leaves.

The government of this island is entirely monarchical, the origin of which is ascribed to a Moorish merchant, who flying for murder from Mosambique, put to sea in an open boat, and accidentally reached Johanna. Being favourably received, and joined soon after by some of his countrymen, he formed the resolution of endeavouring to raise himself to the sovereignty, which, without violence or usurpation, and merely by means of superior abilities and address, was speedily effected. His knowledge was highly useful to the ignorant natives, and rendered him greatly respected; and

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having secured the favour of the majority of the people, and established himself on the throne by their united and voluntary concurrence, he found means to overcome all opposition. After a long and happy reign, he left the kingdom to his son, in whose family it has since remained.

When any European ship arrives at the island, the king usually goes on board; as no trade can be opened with the people till the royal licence be obtained; for procuring which they generally give a little gunpowder, a few musquets, or any other European commodities of small value, which the sovereign may fancy. Of the other Comora isles, we are greatly ignorant of their productions, and of the manners and customs of the inhabitants; but it is generally supposed, that they are more inhospitable than those described, and that they are extremely averse to any intercourse with foreign nations.

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THE CAPE VERD ISLANDS.

These islands obtained their denomination from an opposite Cape on the African coast, which projects into the sea between the rivers Gambia and Senegal, and is called Cape Verd. Their distance from the continent is one hundred and twenty leagues; and they are situated between twenty-three and twenty-six degrees of west longitude, and between fourteen and eighteen degrees of north latitude. It is affirmed that these islands were unknown to the moderns till the year 1460, when Anthony Noel, a native of the state of Genoa, in the Portuguese service, first discovered them. They amount to near twenty in number, some of which, however, are only sterile rocks, and unworthy of notice. The most considerable were peopled by the Portuguese; though the air is in general hot, and, in some of the islands, unfavourable to American constitutions.

The largest of this group is St. Jago, which is sixty leagues in circumference. It is of a triangular form; and though the country is rocky and mountainous, the soil produces sugar, cotton, Indian corn, cocoa-nuts, oranges, lemons, and other tropical fruits. This island also abounds with horses, asses, mules, cows, deer, goats, hogs, civet-cats, and a remarkably beautiful species of green monkies with white faces. The surrounding sea furnishes great plenty and variety of excellent fish; and the outward-bound East India ships generally touch here for fresh water and provisions. Riberia Grande is the capital of the island, the seat of government, and a bishop's see, containing a celebrated and well-built monastery, the gardens of which are highly admired. The other towns of note in this island, are St. Jago, St. Domingo, St. Domingo Abacen, and Praya; the last of which has a most excellent harbour, defended by a fort, situated on the summit of a hill.

Brava is in fourteen degrees of north latitude, about four leagues in circumference, and principally consists of

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high mountains, which rise in the form of a pyramid. It has an excellent harbour, and is, therefore, much frequented by the Dutch and Portuguese vessels trading to the East Indies. The productions of this island are saltpetre, Indian corn, with the fruits and roots common to tropical climates; and it is particularly eminent for its wines.

The island of Fuego, takes its name from a dreadful volcano, situated in the centre, which sometimes emits rocks of a prodigious size to an amazing and incredible height, and with a noise more tremendous than the loudest thunder; and sometimes torrents of flaming sulphur flow down the sides of the mountain, and the lava is afterwards collected in great quantities. Water is extremely scarce; nevertheless, the soil produces vast quantities of fruits and roots; and the island is well stocked with cattle. The inhabitants are chiefly negroes, who manufacture cotton cloth, and are famous for breeding mules, which they dispose of to Europeans.

Mayo is of an oval form, seven leagues in circumference, and derived its name from being discovered on May-day. In this island immense quantities of salt are made from the sea, crystalized by the heat of the sun, which is only effected during the dry season, contrary to the operations of crystalizing performed in the West Indies. This commodity furnishes a very considerable trade to the English, which costs only a present to the negro governor, who is generally invited on board every ship that arrives for this purpose. Though the soil is dry and parched, it produces corn and provisions sufficient for the consumption of the inhabitants; and feeds a great number of asses, with which the English sometimes freight whole ships, and carry them to Barbadoes, and other British islands. The surrounding sea furnishes a plentiful supply of fish, especially of doradoes.

Bonavista was first discovered by the Portuguese, and obtained its appellation from the beautiful prospect it affords towards the sea. It is twenty miles long, and twelve broad; and produces immense quantities of indigo, and

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more cotton than all the rest of the Cape Verd islands. As our countrymen carry on a considerable traffic with the natives of Bonavista, the English language is not only understood, but also spoken by the inhabitants of this island. A curiosity exists here, which is likewise to be found in some of the other islands: this is a kind of vegetable stone, extremely porous, and of a greyish colour; which, protruding stems, forms something in shape resembling the head of a cauliflower.

The isle of SAL obtained its appellation from the vast and incredible quantities of salt naturally produced from the sea-water. The total deficiency of fresh water has occasioned it to become a desolate and desert island.

ST. NICHOLAS is the largest of the Cape Verd islands, excepting St. Jago. The land is chiefly high, and the soil produces maize in great abundance, most tropical fruits, and a variety of trees, particularly the dragon-tree, from which exudes the drug called gum-dragon. The natives are ingenious and industrious, and employ themselves in manufacturing cotton cloth, and in forming it into dresses for the Guinea trade. The capital is St. Nicholas, which is the most compact and populous of any town on these islands, though the best and most superb buildings are covered and thatched with grass.

ST. JOHN'S ISLAND, which is very high and mountainous, abounds with wood and fresh water, and produces large quantities of saltpetre, various fruits and roots common to tropical climates, and plenty of fowls and cattle. The natives are represented as a simple, inoffensive, and hospitable race of people, who wear a slight covering of cotton cloth, which they manufacture. When the governor grants leave to the inhabitants to hunt the wild goat, which is considered as a healthful recreation, they all assemble with their dogs; and when the game is killed, and the chase ended, the flesh is divided according to the distribution of the governor; who reserves a part for himself, and bestows the skins on those who, through age or infirmity, are incapable of pursuing the sport. Besides this office, the governor is also

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the only magistrate, and decides in all matters. If any one is so stubborn as to refuse complying with the decisions of the governor, he is confined till such time as he thinks proper to submit to his decrees. It is seldom that capital offences are perpetrated; but when a crime of that nature happens to be committed, the noxious person is imprisoned till the parties agree, and a bond be obtained from the relations of the offending person, that he shall make his appearance at a public tribunal, whenever a judge shall arrive from Portugal to administer justice.

St. Vincent is inhabited by no human beings; but is frequently visited by mariners, on account of its excellent bay, in which ships may ride with safety, and where wild goats and turtles, and other necessaries may easily be procured.

St. Anthony is chiefly distinguished by its elevated situation, and contains a mountain which is thought to equal, if not exceed, the Peak of Teneriffe in height; and its summit, which is constantly covered with snow, notwithstanding the clearness and serenity of the sky, is generally enveloped in clouds. Several pleasant rivulets water the ground, and diffuse plenty throughout the island: the soil produces maize, oranges, lemons, limes, bananas, plantains, pompions, guavas, musk and water-melons, in great abundance, besides a vast variety of trees and shrubs. The general character of the natives is, that they are inoffensive and humane; and they are supposed to amount to near three thousand persons, three-fourths of which are slaves; who, after the manner of the free negroes, are possessed of wives, houses, and plantations, but are governed by a steward, appointed by a Portuguese nobleman, to whom the island belongs.

Canaries. The Canaries, supposed to be the fortunate or happy islands of antiquity, amount to seven in number, and are situated between twenty-seven degrees thirty minutes, and twenty-nine degrees thirty minutes, of north latitude; and between twelve degrees, and seventeen degrees fifty minutes, west longitude from London. The Cartha-

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ginians, when in the height of their power and glory, first descried and colonized these islands; but after the Romans had conquered and annihilated that state, the navigation to the west was completely stopped, and the Canaries were veiled in obscurity and forgotten, till they were rediscovered by the Spaniards, in the year 1405, to whom they still belong. On their arrival, they found that the natives resembled the Africans on the continent, in their stature and complexions; but that their language was totally dissimilar, and their customs and manners in no respect corresponded with those of their ancient progenitors, or of their continental neighbours. They were greatly ignorant of the arts, and altogether of the sciences; and being told that there were other countries in the world besides their own, they expressed much wonder and astonishment.

In Grand Canary, the number of inhabitants is said to have amounted to thirty thousand; and in Teneriffe, to fifteen thousand. The Spaniards called them a barbarous and inhuman race of people; but it does not appear that their ferocity to their captives, who had maltreated them, and over whom the chance of war had given an absolute and unlimited power, extended further than to compel them to guard and herd their cattle. They were denominated Guanches; were of a gigantic stature, which has since decreased; and had the dexterity of throwing stones with a force equal to that of a musket-ball. But this art, from disease, has been for a long time lost among them. Their other weapons of annoyance and defence consisted of lances pointed with horn, or hardened in the fire. Polygamy was not only permitted, but the virginity of every bride was considered as the property of the chief; and both the husband and wife thought it a mark of distinction and regard, when he condescended to claim his right. Whenever a new prince ascended the throne, a certain number of young persons, of both sexes, sacrificed themselves in honour of him, and to render his reign prosperous and happy; and as a reward for their loyalty and disinterested conduct, the monarch considered himself bound to bestow all possible

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kindness and favour on the parents of these infatuated victims. The Guanches are active and lively, naturally bold and warlike; and so nimble, that with the assistance of a pole they will leap from one rock to another, though at a considerable distance, with amazing agility and precision. When immured in castles and fortresses, they contrive to scale the inside of the walls, and by poising their bodies, they will descend the most steep and rugged precipices. They speak their own language with great rapidity, and pronounce only with their teeth and lips. A few of them have been converted to Christianity; but as they were induced to assume this profession through fear of the inquisition, it is not to be supposed that their religion is altogether real and without hypocrisy.

In these islands a pure and temperate air prevails, and the most delicious fruits abound, particularly grapes, from which that rich wine is extracted, that is distinguished by Canary, and of which the greatest part is exported to England, where the annual consumption of it is upwards of ten thousand hogsheads. The Canaries are also abundant in cattle and various other animals, and are particularly famous for those beautiful and pleasing birds of song which bear the name of the islands.

Palma is the most western and further distant from the continent of Africa of any of the Canaries, and is twenty-four miles long and eighteen broad. In this island is a high and spacious mountain, called Le Caldera, or the Chaldron, from a hollow in its summit, which gradually declining occupies a space of nearly thirty acres, and from which several springs issue, that, passing through an aperture of the mountain, unite at the bottom, and are made use of in turning sugar-mills. The former existence of several volcanoes in different parts of the island is apparent, and the channel of the lava may still be traced. In November, 1677, the earth shook for several days continually, which was accompanied with loud and tremendous noise, during which period, many openings appeared in different places; but the most considerable chasm was at Mount aux Chevres, which

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emitted flames and stones. In 1750, another eruption took place, when the lava flowed down the sides of the mountain, and discharged itself into the sea, about a mile north of the town of Santa Cruz. This island produces more fruits, sugars, and wines, than the inhabitants can possibly consume. Santa Crúz is the best and largest town in Palma, and is situated on the south-east side of the island. It contains many neat and elegant structures, and has a commodious haven, in which vessels may ride secure from every wind.

Ferro, from whence the French geographers formerly computed their longitude, as the Dutch did theirs from Teneriffe, is fifteen leagues in circumference. For above a league from the sea, it has a steep ascent, beyond which the land is tolerably level and fruitful, abounds with a variety of trees and shrubs, and produces pasturage and flowers in greater luxuriance than any of the sister islands. As there is neither spring, well, nor river in the island, Providence has supplied that want by providing the inhabitants with the leaves of a tree, resembling an oak, which grows on the summit of the ascent, and from which they distil a quantity of water sufficient to supply every living creature in Ferro. The branches of this wonderful tree are thick and extended. Every morning a cloud rises from the sea, which being driven by the wind to the summit of the cliff, by degrees settles on the tree, from the leaves and branches of which the water flows down into a large stone reservoir to the quantity of twenty hogsheads. This singular phenomenon is attested by travellers, who affirm that they were eye-witnesses of the fact, and is only contradicted by one, who, it is said, is no further a philosopher than he is sceptical and incredulous. The natives of this island, previous to the arrival and settlement of the Spaniards among them, paid religious veneration to two deities, one of whom was a male, the other a female, each being worshipped by the respective sex. It was believed by them, that though these deities resided in heaven, yet they descended to earth

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to receive the prayers and petitions of their suppliants, and then returned to their celestial abodes.

Gomera is a small but fertile island, and produces sugar canes and wines. Mules are very common, and more numerous here than in any of the sister isles; and there are also many deer, which were originally imported from Barbary. The heroes of this island were esteemed immortal, and their martial achievements are still celebrated in rude and inharmonious poetry. A singular custom of admitting a community of women prevails in Gomera; and, though every man has a wife of his own, it would be considered as uncivil, not to lend them to those who request it. And hence it is, that the sister's son always inherits. The principal place in the island is denominated La Villa de Palmas, or the town of Palms, from the great quantity of palm-trees growing in the neighbourhood. In this town are a church, a convent of friars, and nearly two hundred private houses, and it abounds with plenty of water.

Teneriffe is celebrated for its peak or mountain, the summit of which resembles a sugar-loaf; its height is about four miles perpendicular from the earth, and it may be seen at sea to the distance of more than one hundred and twenty miles. This island is of a triangular form, whose three sides are nearly equal, each of which is about twelve leagues in extent. The peak consists of vast rocks, piled on one another, and is evidently the effects of subterraneous eruptions and violent concussions of nature; and this mountain still continues at times to emit such incredible quantities of burning sulphur and melted ore, that the richest and most cultivated lands are thereby converted into barren deserts. On the summit of the peak is continual snow; the air is subtile, cold, and piercing; and the traveller, who has the curiosity to make the attempt of reaching the top, feels a palpitation at his heart, which is accompanied with a difficulty of breathing. Before he has reached one-half of the ascent, the clouds appear below him, and the whole surrounding country resembles a vast and unbounded ocean.

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The capital of this island is Santa Cruz, which is situated near the shore, and has an excellent and commodious harbour. The town is large and populous, and contains several superb and elegant structures. In 1704 happened a very dreadful earthquake in this island, and no less than twenty-nine concussions were experienced in the space of three hours. On the thirty-first of December, the earth opened, and two volcanoes were formed, which emitted such a quantity of stones as to raise two considerable mountains. On the fifth of January following, the scene became still more dreadful and alarming; the sun was totally obscured by the clouds and flames; and the whole surrounding country, to the distance of nine miles, exhibited an universal deluge of devouring fire. The violence of the thunder increased, the island was shaken to its centre, and the wretched inhabitants every where fleeing for refuge, met certain and inevitable destruction. Notwithstanding these dreadful disasters, the island is fertile and salubrious, and abounds with corn, wine, and oil. Most of the Guanches, who survived the devastation and havock of the Spaniards, built a town in Teneriffe, in which their posterity still reside. They speak their own language, which resembles that of the Moors of Barbary. They acknowledge a supreme Being, whom they consider as just, compassionate, and merciful. They had kings to whom they swore fidelity, and whose palaces were caves and rocks, formed by nature, which are still distinguished by the name of the royal caverns.

Grand Canary is a most delightful and fertile island, possessed of a happy temperature of air, and abounding with delicious fruits, trees, and salubrious streams; insomuch that, in every point of view, it merits the appellation of the Fortunate Island. In the interior part of it are several mountains of great height, which adorn the prospect; and it abounds with wood of various kinds, of which the pine, palm, wild-olive, poplar, lauzel, dragon-tree, lignum rhodium, Indian fig, and many others, grow spontaneously. Its fruits are oranges, lemons, citrons, pomegranates, ap-

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ples, pears, peaches, apricots, figs, dates, and, in short, all that is common to the European or American climates, except pine-apples. It also produces a variety of roots, herbs, and plants, and two crops annually of wheat, barley, and maize; and is not destitute of any animal or vegetable production which human nature may seem to require. Palma, the capital of this island, is situated three miles from the sea coast, and though a place of no great strength, is large and populous, and contains many superb and elegant buildings, public as well as private. At some distance is a safe and commodious harbour, which is secure against every wind except the south-east, which seldom blows with such violence as to endanger vessels.

Fuertuventura is about eighty miles long, and at a medium about fifteen broad. The soil is in general fertile in corn, roots, and fruits; and the island is beautifully diversified with hills and vallies, and well watered and supplied with timber. It has several bays and harbours; but as the sea sometimes rises upwards of sixty feet in height, the strongest vessels are in danger of being dashed to pieces by the force and violence of the waves. In this island are three towns, the capital of which contains a church, a convent, and about one hundred and fifty houses. There is also a number of villages, scattered throughout the island, which are populous, and the inhabitants of which enjoy an uninterrupted state of health to a very advanced period.

The last island of the Canaries, of which we shall give a description, is Lancerota, which is fifteen miles in length, and ten in breadth, and at a distance appears high, black, rocky, and barren. It is divided by a ridge of mountains, which afford only pasturage for cattle, but the vallies are fertile and pleasant, and the air is pure and wholesome. It abounds with grain, fruits, neat cattle, camels, and asses. On the rocks which encircle the coast, grows the orchilla-weed, an ingredient used in dying purple, which is believed to be the getulian colour of the ancients. About seventy years since appeared a volcano, which emitted an immense quantity of ashes and stones; and a small rock, in the form

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of a pyramid, afterwards arose, which still continues. The principal port of this island is Porto del Naos. To these seven great islands might be added: St. Clair, Graciosa, Rocca, and Allgranza; but they possess nothing worth describing.

MADEIRAS. These islands are two in number, and, according to several writers, were first discovered in 1344, by an Englishman of the name of Ovington; but the Portuguese first took possession of them in 1431, when they found them uninhabited and covered with wood; which being cut down and burned, the soil was rendered abundantly fertile, and has continued so ever since.

MADEIRA, which is the larger island, is one hundred and eighty miles in circumference, and possesses a most delightful climate, and a perpetual spring. It is composed of one continued hill, that extends from east to west, on the southern declivity of which are vineyards, and the seats of the richest merchants. Madeira abounds with wine, corn, oil, sugar, and fruits; the trees are perpetually in blossom; and the soil being well watered, and fertilized by several rivers, produces every delicious vegetable that can contribute to the luxury or gratification of life. This was the first place in the west where the manufacture of sugar was attempted, and from whence the plantations were removed to the Brazils. The sugar that is made in this island has a sweet smell, and a beautiful appearance. Madeira is now chiefly distinguished for its excellent wines, which seem intended by Divine Providence as a refreshment to the inhabitants of the torrid zone. There are several sorts of these wines, and it is computed that at least twenty thousand hogsheads are annually exported to other countries. The wine of this island not only endures a warm climate, but even improves by being exposed to the rays and heat of the sun. The most considerable town is Fonchiale, which is fortified with a castle, and battery of cannon. The inhabitants of this place are the descendants of English and French Roman Catholics, and native Portuguese. The clergy are exceedingly rich; and the essentials of religion are very little observed.

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Porto Santo, the other Madeira island, lies opposite to the kingdom of Morocco, and, though extremely fertile and productive, is only about ten miles in circumference. The Portuguese fleet, on a voyage of discoveries to the coast of Africa, in 1412, being surprised by a storm, were driven upon this island, which, on account of the protection it afforded them, they denominated Porto Santo, or the Holy Port. The East India ships generally touch here to procure water and fresh provisions, as there are several large and commodious harbours in which they may ride secure. We must not forget to mention that the islands of Madeira are wholly exempted from venomous animals; and that if any noxious or poisonous reptiles be introduced, they will immediately die. The air likewise is extremely salubrious, and is often recommended for pulmonic complaints.

Azores. It has never yet been determined whether the Azores are to be reckoned among the number of the African, American, or European islands; as they are situated at nearly an equal distance from these several parts of the world: they lie in the Atlantic ocean, between twenty-five and thirty-two degrees of west longitude, and between thirty-seven and forty degrees of north latitude. They were first discovered by a merchant of Bruges, in Flanders; who, sailing to Lisbon, was accidentally driven upon them by a storm, and gave them the appellation of the Flemish islands. Boasting, however, of his discoveries, on his arrival at Lisbon, the Portuguese immediately sent a fleet of ships to take possession of them; and great numbers of hawks and falcons having been observed in their approach to these islands, they received the name which they have at present, though they are sometimes called the Western Islands. The sky here is clear and serene, and the air temperate and salubrious; but violent earthquakes, and inundations of the sea, are frequent; and, from both these causes, the inhabitants suffer considerably. They abound, however, with corn, wine, and a variety of fruits, cattle, fish, and fowl.

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St. Michael, the largest of the Azores, is almost one hundred miles in circumference, and contains one city, five towns, twenty-two villages, and upwards of fifty thousand inhabitants. This island is luxuriantly fertile, and carries on a considerable commerce in corn, wine, and cattle. Its two principal harbours are Porto Delgada, and Villa Franca, which are insecure and dangerous for vessels.

St. Mary, which is only about four miles long and three broad, is surrounded by a strong and natural rampart of high mountains, in such a manner, that neither castles, nor fortifications, are requisite for its defence. The interior part of the island is fertile, populous, and well cultivated, and supplies all the necessaries and conveniences of life in great abundance. What chiefly merits our attention, is the establishment of a porcelain manufacture, in which china-ware is happily imitated, and which constitutes the principal article of commerce in this island. Porto is its chief town. St. Mary is surrounded by a tempestuous sea; and a cloud, which covers the summit of the highest mountain in this island, announces the approach of a storm. When this precursor and foreteller of the tempest appears, a sort of murmuring noise is heard in the air, the cattle seem uneasy and terrified, and the birds retire to some places of concealment. Soon after, the sea becomes agitated, and ships must immediately abandon this dangerous coast, if they would avoid being dashed to pieces.

Tercera, which is thirteen miles long and six broad, has a spacious and commodious haven, for which reason it is the most important and valuable of all the Azores. This island is of a circular form, and is strongly defended both by nature and art. It produces wheat and other grain, pasturage for cattle, and a great variety of lemons, oranges, and all those fruits common to tropical and European climates. Angra, which is the metropolis of Tercera, and of all the Azores, is the residence of the governor, and the see of a bishop, who is the suffragan and the dependant of the patriarch of Lisbon. This capital is strong and populous, and contains several spacious streets, a cathedral, five churches,

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an hospital, and eight convents. The Brazil and East India fleets generally touch at this island for refreshment.

The island of GRACIOSA, which, it is said, derived its name from the remarkable fertility of the soil, is about ten miles long and seven broad, and contains two towns, the principal of which, is Santa Cruz, seated on a bay of the sea which forms a commodious harbour, called Caheta, and defended by a fort and battery.

The island of ST. GEORGE is chiefly distinguished for its lofty and valuable cedars, with which the natives carry on a considerable trade. It is in some parts rocky and mountainous; but in others, well cultivated and populous; and contains three towns and four villages. The capital is denominated Villa de Velas, and is a small and inconsiderable place, with only one church and one convent, but possesses the advantage of a port.

The island of PICO, obtained its name from a lofty mountain, terminating, like that of Teneriffe, in a peak, and said by some authors to be nearly equal to it in height. This island may be seen at a great distance, and is sixteen miles in length and five in breadth. Its productions are nearly the same as those of all the Azores. The principal port is at Villa des Lagens, from whence the natives carry on a considerable trade with wines, and various kinds of wood, particularly cedar.

The island of FAYAL, which is nine miles in length and three in breadth, derived its name from the great quantity of beech-trees with which it was covered. The principal place in this island is Villa de Horta, which has a harbour defended by a castle and batteries. In the reign of queen Elizabeth, the English, under the command of the earls of Cumberland and Essex, took and burned a squadron of ships richly laden, which was in the harbour, made themselves masters of this island, and destroyed its fortifications.

The island of FLORES, is tolerably large, and its capital is called Santa Cruz. It abounds with wood, corn, pasturage and other necessary and useful productions. The inhabitants live to a great age; and the island is populous.

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Corvo, the last of the Azores, lies opposite to Flores, and derived its name from the great number of crows, with which it abounded when first discovered. The whole circumference of the island is not more than three leagues, and the coast, except two insignificant harbours, which can receive only vessels of small size, is every where surrounded by a chain of rocks.

The Azores, like the Madeiras, are wholly exempted from poisonous or obnoxious animals, and when any of these creatures happen to be imported, the air immediately destroys them. The king of Portugal claims and receives the tenth of all the productions of these islands, and the single article of tobacco raises a considerable revenue. Wines, however, are the chief produce of the Azores, and twenty thousand pipes, or upwards are annually exported.

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ISLAND OF ST. HELENA.

Islands are generally situated near continents, or in the neighbourhood of each other, and discover, in the similarity of their structure, soil, and productions, the affinity and relations of a common origin. But, besides these, islands are sometimes found of a distinct and peculiar fabric, and probably of a more recent formation, either situated on the borders of other lands, or found quite unconnected and solitary, in the most remote and unfrequented spaces of the ocean. Perhaps, one of the most singular and extraordinary of this last description, is the island of St. Helena. It lies in the sixteenth degree of south latitude, and eighth of longitude, west of London, near the centre of a vast ocean, where there are no other lands, within one thousand miles, to influence or modify the course of its seasons.

The greatest length of the island is ten miles, and its greatest breadth between six and seven. The hills nearest the sea are from eight to fourteen hundred feet in height. Those inland rise much higher; and Diana's Peak, the most elevated part of the ridge, which runs from south-west to north-east, is two thousand six hundred and ninety-two feet above the level of the ocean.* From the base of this central ridge the surrounding hills slope and descend towards the sea.

The highest summits, and their declivities, with every little terrace that juts out from their sides, as well as the intermediate hollows, are covered with the most luxuriant vegetation, while the lower hills on the coast, and most of the villages that lie between them, are not only naked and barren, but have an aspect of rudeness and desolation.

The possession of this unpromising spot, which nature has removed so far from strife and contention, has been, nevertheless, disputed by the natives of Europe, as it

* One of the highest hills still bears the name of the celebrated Halley, who fixed his telescope on this spot, for the purpose of observing the stars of the southern hemisphere.

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abounds with excellent water, affords a convenient place of refreshment to fleets, and may, in time of war, be converted into a military station of great strength and importance. It was first discovered by the Portuguese, in 1508; who, falling in with it on the twenty-first of May, the feast of St. Helen, gave it the name, which it still retains. The English made a settlement on it in 1660; and in 1673, the Dutch took it by surprise. It was retaken the following year, and has remained ever since in the possession of the English East India Company.

The history of discovery and colonization, is too often the history of injustice and oppression of countries invaded, because they were rich and valuable; and of the slavery or extermination of their inhabitants, because they were weak. Happily the settlement of this barren island has afforded no opportunity of increasing the catalogue of crimes committed by the discoverers of new regions. It was found without any human inhabitants, without quadrupeds, and almost without birds.

That St. Helena has been the seat of volcanic fires, will hardly be questioned by any one who examines the materials of which it is composed. For, to say nothing of the immense profusion of scorified, cavernous, light, spongy, and vitrified stones, which every where cover its surface, and the vast beds of the same sort of stones, cemented together with lava, which penetrate its whole substance; even its hardest and most compact materials bear evident vestiges of fire. The summits and bases of the basaltic rock are always more or less scorified, cellular, and honeycombed; and several of them of a smoky, black colour, as if from the effects of recent ignition. A great part of the materials which compose St. Helena, must have flowed from the ignited crater of a volcano. Many appearances render it probable, that its formation has taken place at a very remote period; and that the causes, to which it owes its peculiar structure and elevation above the waves, have, for many ages, ceased to exert their agency. The season of rest and tranquillity seems here to have succeeded to a long

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period of convulsion; and the ancient seat of volcanic fires, and subterranean explosion, has become the stable and temperate abode of plants and animals.

The climate of St. Helena is pure and salubrious, and the temperature very moderate, for an island situated within the torrid zone. As its surface consists chiefly of rock, unsheltered by wood, which is exposed twice in the year to the perpendicular rays of the sun, and parched with long continued droughts, we might suppose it subject to great heat: yet this never rises to excess, and the island is entirely exempted from all those severe agitations of nature, which occasionally afflict and desolate other tropical countries.

From its great elevation, and variety of surface, there is a diversity of climate at different heights; but the whole range of the thermometer is from fifty-two to eighty-four, of Fahrenheit.

Within these limits of temperature, the hills and vallies of St. Helena are preserved by the influence of the south-east trade wind, which continually blows over the island; and, except for a short period, when the sun is vertical, passes with a steady and uniform current, overspreading the heights with a light vapour, and moderating the reflected heat of the adjacent vallies.

St. Helena being of an extent too inconsiderable to change or modify the general course of the weather, which predominates in these latitudes, enjoys a settled serenity of climate, an exemption from storms, and a regular revolution of seasons. The principal inconvenience of this fine climate arises from a want of rain, which proves a great obstruction to the improvement of the soil. At some periods the drought is so excessive as to destroy the cattle, kill the trees, and entirely wither every appearance of vegetation. Rain has sometimes not fallen for the space of three years. It is natural to suppose, that a mountainous rock, rising out of the waters to the height of near two thousand seven hundred feet, would become the centre of attraction to the clouds, which settling and condensing round its summit, would discharge themselves in frequent showers and storms. The

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fact, however, is otherwise. St. Helena presents the singular phenomenon of a land embosomed in the ocean, and yet suffering as severely from drought as if it lay in the middle of a sandy desert.

No country in the world can exceed St. Helena, in the salubrity of its climate. Removed from the extremes of heat and cold, exempted from all sudden changes of temperature, and freed from the inconvenience of an excessively humid, or an immoderately dry atmosphere, it may easily be supposed that such a situation must be favourable to health and longevity. We accordingly find that the natives, in general, arrive at a good old age, and what is of still more consequence, that they escape from most of those diseases which oppress the inhabitants of less temperate and more variable climates. The sickly crews of ships that touch here, very shortly recover, and many of the invalids who are discharged from the different regiments of India, and sent home as incurable or unfit for service, recover so fast during their stay at St. Helena, that they again enlist and continue to enjoy good health. Here the ships' crews run no risk by sleeping on shore, or by any unguarded exposure to the night air, and the vessels themselves are never liable to suffer from storms or hurricanes. There are few places indeed, which unite so many advantages as this volcanic rock, whose rude and naked aspect seems to promise so little. Its freedom from noxious damps and vapours cannot be ascribed to the nakedness of its surface. These effects, more probably arise from the constant prevalence of the trade-wind, blowing over a wide tract of sea, where there are no neighbouring lands to disturb or interrupt its course.

Though this climate is, in general, very dry, and hardly ever refreshed with a sufficiency of rain, it is, however, at particular seasons very damp, and the evenings and mornings are frequently raw and chilly. From malignant or contagious fevers, and from many of the severest diseases of other countries, the inhabitants are wholly exempted. The small-pox has, hitherto, not found its way to St. He-

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lena. It is also a singular fact, that the dog has never been affected with the hydrophobia, in this highly favoured isle.

When St. Helena was first discovered, several shrubs and plants were found growing on it—some of which are said to be of a new and peculiar character. Cut off from the main land, by a vast extent of ocean, we cannot easily conceive whence this island could derive the seeds of vegetables, after it became fit to receive and nourish them. During the period of its combustion, it could not be the abode, either of plants, or of animals, and it will not be supposed, that any latent germ of life could be preserved unhurt, among materials which flowed from the craters of volcanoes.

Of indigenous shrubs and trees, some of which are said to be peculiar to this island, there are only about nine or ten different species. One of the most curious, is called by the inhabitants, the Tree Fern. It grows to the height of twenty or twenty-five feet, and bears a very close resemblance to the fern.

The apple tree, is said to yield fruit twice a year. The apples are very fine, and some of them uncommonly large. The peach used to be the most abundant fruit in the island, but there are few of these now remaining. This valuable fruit, which was introduced many years ago, throve and multiplied amazingly, in almost every situation, and propagating itself like an indigenous plant; but in the last half of the eighteenth century, an imported insect destroyed almost all the trees, and no means have hitherto been found of checking its ravages.

We are unacquainted with the precise number of inhabitants in St. Helena. They were roughly calculated a few years since at about two thousand, of whom five hundred were soldiers, and six hundred blacks. Most families have country seats, in which they generally reside from October till April or May, which is their summer season, and during that period, James's Valley is deserted. In these romantic and salubrious abodes, they enjoy the solaces of domestic life, and the happiness of rearing large and promising families. Females are prolific, their labours easy,

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and their offspring healthful. But, it deserves particular notice, that the number of females born here, is said to exceed that of males.

The interior resources of the island, as far as they regard the means of subsistence, are but scanty and limited. There is no bread corn, and the grounds seem not at all adapted to the culture of farinaceous grains. A little barley, indeed, has been raised, and it grows well, but it is destroyed by rats which abound here. Caterpillars are also very numerous, and with the insect that attacks the peach, are the greatest pests which the inhabitants have to contend with in their gardening and agriculture. The rats are supposed to have been brought in ships, and the peach insect, and caterpillars, seem to have been imported on some exotic plants. But in whatever way they have been brought thither, they have multiplied amazingly to the great annoyance of the inhabitants, and the detriment and obstruction of agriculture. The best and most plentiful article is beef, which is very fat, juicy, and delicious.

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AMERICA.

The continent of America, extends from seventy-two degrees north, to fifty-four degrees south latitude, comprising an extent of seven thousand five hundred and sixty geographical miles. The greatest breadth of North America, may be computed at about three thousand nine hundred, and that of South America, at, or about, two thousand eight hundred and fifty geographical miles.

For the discovery of this new world, mankind is indebted to the enterprising genius and scientific errors of Christopher Colon, more generally known by the name of Columbus, a native of Genoa, who had conceived the hope of reaching India, by sailing to the west. His adventurous project, founded on the mistaken structure of the maps of that age, which represented the oriental countries of Asia, as stretching vastly further to the east, than actual observation has found them to extend, was submitted to the Genoese government by this bold and intrepid projector, who represented the advantage that would accrue to his country, from the possession of a new route to the great source of opulence. The Genoese, however, treated the idea as absurd and chimerical. Disappointed in his first attempt, he applied to foreign courts, to procure the means of realising his plan. His next application was made to Henry VII. of England, but the cautious politics of that prince, deprived him of the honour he might otherwise have acquired.

His next step was to apply to the court of Portugal, which, in that age, greatly encouraged the spirit of discovery along the African coast; but could entertain no idea of so bold a design as that of Columbus. Spain was now his only resource. He laid his scheme before the Spanish court, and after eight years of tedious application, and repeated disappointments, at last succeeded through the interest of queen Isabella. Under her liberal patronage,

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and at her private expense, he set sail in the year 1492, from the port of Palos in Andalusia, with three small vessels, on the most adventurous and important expedition ever undertaken by man—an expedition destined to operate a total change in the political and commercial state of Europe and America, but the glory of which was not reaped without difficulties and dangers, and torts that would have deterred less resolute navigators. His sailors at one time, despairing of success, and apprehending nothing less than total destruction, broke out into open mutiny, and threatened to throw him overboard, unless he would immediately consent to return to Europe. The firmness of the commander, repressed the mutinous spirit of his crew, and the discovery of land after a voyage of thirty-three days, extinguished every cause of discontent. The Bahama islands were the first part of America, on which the feet of Europeans were placed, but from the poverty of the inhabitants, it was soon discovered that they were still at a distance from the opulent shores of India. The fertile island of St. Domingo was next discovered; and from some samples of gold that he received, Columbus began to entertain brighter hopes. Here he left a few of his men to form the ground work of a colony, and returned to Spain to procure the necessary reinforcements. On his arrival, he immediately proceeded from Seville to Barcelona, where the court then resided. He travelled through the country amidst the acclamations of the people, and attended by some of the inhabitants, with the gold, the arms, utensils, and ornaments of the newly discovered countries. His entrance into Barcelona, was a triumph more glorious than those of conquerors. The glory and advantage, which promised to result from so unexpected a discovery, rendered the court eager to forward his designs. A fleet of seventeen sail was immediately equipped, and furnished with every thing necessary for discovery or conquest. Several persons of fortune, and rank, prepared to visit this new field of enterprise. Columbus, being now appointed viceroy of all the countries that he should discover, imme-

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distinly sailed for Hispaniola. On his arrival, he erected forts for the protection of the new colony, and sailing from island to island, visited the coasts of Cuba, and discovered Jamaica.

The success of this great man had at first excited admiration, but by its continuance, admiration was changed into envy. His enemies at the court of Spain, put every engine of intrigue in motion against him. An officer was sent to act as a spy over his actions, and Columbus soon discovered the necessity of returning to Europe, to defeat the cabals of his enemies. This he found to be no easy task. It was not without difficulty that he obtained leave to set out on his third expedition, in which he discovered the continent of South America. Sailing south from Spain, as far as the equator, he then directed his course to the west, and steered with the trade winds across the Atlantic. At the end of seventeen days of a westerly course, land was discovered, which proved to be the island of Trinidad. He then sailed to the mouth of the great river Oroonoko, where he was surprised by an appearance which he had never before seen. This was the tumultuous agitation of the waves, occasioned by the conflict between the tides of the ocean, and the rapid current of that immense river. Proceeding a little further, he found that he was in fresh water, and deeming it impossible, that an island should contain so vast a river, he concluded that he had discovered the continent. After leaving the mouth of the Oroonoko, the continuance of the land to the westward, confirmed the fact. Satisfied with this conviction, he returned to Hispaniola. This continent was supposed to be a part of Asia, and it was not till long after the death of Columbus, that another vast ocean was known to exist between India and the newly discovered countries.

The glory of Columbus, and the envy which that glory excited, were now at their height. The grandees and courtiers of Spain were sensible of the importance of the new world, and viewed, with an invidious eye, the honours and emoluments of an obscure Italian. As there is no difficulty

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in finding grounds of accusation against those who are employed in the execution of an extensive and complicated plan, their intrigues were at last successful. Columbus was superseded in his government—treated as a traitor, and sent home in irons. He justified himself, however, in spite of his accusers, and was restored to the favour of the Spanish court.

A spirit of discovery and adventure, was now universally excited. In 1499, Ojeda, who had accompanied Columbus in his second voyage, sailed with a small squadron to the new world; but made very little addition to the recent discoveries. One of the adventurers in this expedition, more fortunate than the commander in chief, acquired a lasting celebrity, by transferring his own name to that extensive portion of the globe which the adventurous spirit of Columbus had first laid open. This was Amerigo Vespucci, a Florentine, a man of science, and a skilful navigator, who, on his return, published the first description of the new discoveries that had yet appeared. The year 1500 was distinguished by the important, although accidental discovery of Brazil, by Alvarez de Cabral, the Portuguese admiral, in consequence of being driven too far to the westward, in his voyage to the East Indies. In 1502, Columbus made his fourth and last voyage, in which he discovered the harbour of Porto Bello, and a considerable part of the continent. He then returned to Europe, and died at Valladolid, in the year 1506, in the fifty-ninth year of his age; leaving a name and reputation as durable as the continent he discovered.

During the first periods of discovery, the idea was still entertained, that America was a part of the continent of Asia, and some time elapsed before the notion was exploded. In 1513, the Pacific ocean, being descried from the mountains of the isthmus of Darien, by Vasco Nugnez de Balboa, this chimera began to vanish, and was finally dissipated by succeeding discoveries. Hispaniola and Cuba still continued the chief seats of the Spanish power in the new world. From the first voyage of Columbus, twenty-six years had elapsed, before the existence of the great empires

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of Mexico and Peru was known to the adventurers of Europe. The former of these two extensive states was conquered by Cortez, in 1521; the latter, by Pizarro, in 1540.

In North America, the progress of discovery was much slower than in the southern half of the continent. So early, however, as the year 1497, Giovanni Gaboto, a Venetian, whose name has been anglicised into John Cabot, having received a commission from Henry VII. of England, to trace out a shorter way to India, discovered the island of Newfoundland, and the coast of North America between that island and Florida. But this extensive tract of land, forming a grand obstacle to the accomplishment of his design, he returned to England. No attempt was made for the next eighty years, to improve these discoveries. About three years afterwards, Corte de Real, a Portuguese captain, occupied in a similar search after a north-west passage to India, fell in with the coast of Labrador. In 1515, Florida was discovered by the Spaniards. Till 1524, France had taken no part in this new scene of adventure; but in that year, Francis I. who could not long overlook any scheme that afforded a prospect of glory for himself, or his kingdom, commissioned Verazano, a Venetian, to sail on a voyage of discovery. This navigator explored a great part of the coast of North America. The same monarch, in 1534, sent out a fleet from St. Maloes, for the purpose of establishing a settlement in North America: Cartier, the commander of this expedition, discovered, on St. Lawrence's day, the great gulf and river, to which he gave the name of that saint. In the year following, he sailed three hundred miles up that stream—built a fort, and gave to the country the name of New France. This important territory, which afterwards received the name of Canada, was, by the fortune of arms, transferred, in 1763, to Great Britain, and now constitutes the only seat of her power in that quarter, while her own extensive dominions have rejected her authority, and established an independent federal republic. Such are the revolutions of human affairs.

The capacious country of Florida, although discovered,

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had not yet become the seat of any European settlement. Extensive coasts and great depths of territory presented themselves in so constant a succession, that it was impossible for colonization to keep pace with the rapidity and extent of discovery. In 1539, Soto, a Spaniard, set out from Cuba for the conquest of Florida. He advanced into the continent as far as the thirty-fifth degree of north latitude, but died on the banks of the Mississippi, during his expedition. The French, about the year 1562, attempted to form a settlement in Florida, but they were shortly after expelled by the Spaniards. The English, during this period, had made various discoveries on the North American coast, but had not attempted to make any settlement. Sir Humphrey Gilbert, in 1578, first obtained a patent for this purpose. In 1583, he took possession of the harbour of St. John, but was lost on his return from the voyage. The practicability of a north-west passage to India was a phantom which still haunted the imagination of European adventurers. In the search after this chimera, Frobisher had, in the year 1576, discovered the straits that bear his name. The circumnavigation of the globe by Drake, roused the spirit of adventure in England; and Raleigh, in 1583, obtained a patent for forming a settlement. The situation, however, was ill chosen, and the event proved unsuccessful. At the death of Elizabeth, in 1603, at a period when Spain had already established in America, an empire more extensive than Alexander, or the Cæsars, had ever possessed, there was not one Englishman settled on that vast continent. The first permanent settlement established by the English, was at James Town, in Virginia, in 1607; and from this epoch, civilization went rapidly forward. At various periods, several discoveries have been made towards the north, especially by Davis, who, in 1575, explored the straits which bear his name; and in 1607, and 1610, by Hudson, who advanced along the coast of Greenland to eighty or eighty-two degrees of latitude, and discovered the narrow passage, and the inland sea called Hudson's

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Straits and Bay. In the eighteenth century, Cook, Vancouver, and the Russian navigators, seem to have completed the discovery of the western coast of America. Hearne, and Mackenzie, have also penetrated by land to the latitude of seventy degrees, and explored a part of what they regarded as the coast of the arctic ocean.

NORTH AMERICA,

Extends to the vicinity of Panama. Its vast lakes, or inland seas, and extensive rivers, are worthy of particular notice.

Hudson's Bay, one of the largest of these inland seas, is about one thousand and fifty miles in length, and affords a considerable whale and sturgeon fishery. The extensive tract of country, on the southern side, belongs to the Hudson's Bay Company, and abounds in furs, which furnish an important article of commerce. The shores are rocky; and, except in the month of June, when the heat, though short, is violent, the climate is the reign of perpetual winter. The regions to the north of Hudson's Bay, are a scene of geographical obscurity. Perpetual ice presents an insurmountable barrier against discovery; and a rigorous climate precludes the possibility of colonization.

BRITISH AMERICA.

The British possessions, although in a disadvantageous climate, and thinly peopled, are of considerable importance in commerce. They consist of Canada, New Brunswick, Nova Scotia, the islands of Newfoundland, Cape Breton, and the Bermudas. The chief of these is Canada, now divided into two provinces, the Upper and the Lower. Canada extends from the mouth of the Gulf of St. Lawrence, in longitude sixty-four degrees, to about ninety-seven degrees, west; and from forty-three degrees, to about forty-nine degrees, north latitude: its length, from east to west,

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being about one thousand two hundred, and its breadth, from north to south, about three hundred and sixty geographical miles.

The soil is various in this extensive territory; but, in general, fertile. In Lower Canada it consists principally of a blackish earth, of about a foot deep, on a bed of clay. The island of Orleans, near Quebec, and the lands on the St. Lawrence, and other rivers, are remarkable for the richness of their soil. The meadow grounds, or savannas, are, for the most part, exceedingly fertile. The severity of the climate counterbalances the fertility of the soil. Though Canada is situated in the temperate latitude of France, the climate corresponds with that of the middle of Russia, or even with that of the parallel of sixty degrees in Siberia. The extremes of heat and cold are astonishing. Winter reigns with such severity, from December to April, that the largest rivers are frozen, and the snow generally lies from four to six feet deep, during the whole of that season. In January, the cold is so intense, that it is dangerous to be long out of doors; as an imprudent exposure may occasion the loss of a limb. Winter, however, is not without its appropriate amusement, notwithstanding the intenseness of the cold. Sleighs, drawn by one or two horses, afford an easy and speedy conveyance in travelling; but, on going abroad, it is necessary to cover with furs all parts of the body, except the eyes. During this rigorous season, the air is serene and healthful. In May, the thaw comes suddenly, and vegetation is instantaneous. The summer heats are as oppressive, as the cold of winter is piercing. September is, generally, one of the most agreeable months.

Among its vegetable productions may be reckoned wheat, and all kinds of grain. There is also a species of indigenous vine, which produces a small sour grape. Many of the culinary vegetables, and fruits of Europe, especially gooseberries, raspberries, &c. are met with in Canada; and some tobacco is cultivated for private use. The forests afford immense quantities of timber, of various kinds: oak, elm, beech, pine, chesnut, walnut, sycamore, ash, &c. The

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maple tree also abounds, and furnishes a useful supply of sugar, for home consumption.

Quebec is the capital, not only of Canada, but of all British America. This city is situated on a lofty point of land, at the confluence of the river St. Charles, with that of St. Lawrence. It consists of two towns, the upper and the lower: the upper town seated on a rock of lime stone, is strong by nature and art; but the lower town is open to attack. The monasteries are almost extinct, but here are three nunneries. It is supposed to contain about fifteen thousand inhabitants. The river St. Lawrence is five miles wide, a little below the town, which is nearly four hundred miles from the sea. Its depth, corresponding with its breadth, affords a capacious harbour, in which a fleet of one hundred sail of the line may lie just below the town.

The second city of Canada, is Montreal; a handsome town, situated on the east side of an island, in the river St. Lawrence. It contains about six thousand inhabitants. While Canada belonged to the French, Montreal was a delightful spot, producing every thing that could contribute to the conveniences of life; but since it came into the possession of the English, it has suffered greatly by fires. The town is well built, forming nearly a square, with regular and handsome streets. Here are four convents, and six churches, of which, four belong to Roman Catholics, and the two others to the Protestants. Montreal is about one hundred and sixty miles distant from Quebec, and is the utmost point to which vessels ascend from the ocean. The St. Lawrence, as far as this place, is from two to four miles in breadth. Montreal carries on a very considerable trade in furs, which are sent from Canada to England.

The town of Trois Rivieres, lies about half-way between Quebec and Montreal. It derives its name from three rivers, which here join their streams, and fall into the St. Lawrence. It is greatly resorted to by several nations of Indians, for the purpose of trading with the inhabitants, bringing various kinds of furs and skins, which they barter for European commodities.

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From Quebec to Montreal, in sailing up the river St. Lawrence, the traveller meets with a succession of beautiful landscapes, the banks being in many places, bold and steep, and shaded with lofty trees. The farms are pretty close all the way, and villas neatly built, appear at intervals, but there are few towns or villages.

The French began in 1603, to form settlements on the north bank of the river St. Lawrence, and in 1608, built the town of Quebec. They continued to extend their settlements on that side of the river, till 1629, when the country was reduced by the English; but in 1631, it was restored to France. The principal commerce carried on by the settlers, was that of furs, which they purchased for a trifle, from the natives, and afterwards sold to great advantage in the European markets. This trade, to which the colony owed its prosperity, became at last so important, that in 1743, the value of the peltry imported at Rochelle, from Canada, was estimated at one hundred and twenty thousand pounds sterling. Canada was a French colony, till 1763, when it was ceded to England.

The religion of Canada, is the Roman Catholic, but the British settlers follow their own modes of worship. The number of the Catholic clergy, is about one hundred and twenty-six; that of the clergymen of the church of England, about twelve, including the bishop of Quebec.

The government may be properly denominated a vice royalty. By an act, passed in 1791, a legislative council and an assembly are appointed for each of the two provinces. The legislative council consists of seven members for Upper, and fifteen for Lower Canada, summoned by the governor under the king's authority, and nominated during life. The house of assembly is composed of fifty members from the Lower, and sixteen from the Upper province, chosen by the freeholders of the towns and districts. These councils assemble at least once every year, and the house of assembly continues four years, except in case of dissolution. The whole of British America, is superintended by the governor general, who is also commander in

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chief of the military force, and each province has a lieutenant governor, who possesses all the powers requisite to a chief magistrate. By the constitution of 1791, all lands in Upper Canada are hereafter to be granted in free soccage, and the same provision is extended to Lower Canada, at the option of the grantee, but subject, nevertheless, to alterations by an act of the legislature.

The legislative councils and the assembly, have power to make laws with the consent of the governor, but the king may declare his dissent, at any time within two years after receiving a bill.

The only revenue arising to Great Britain from Canada, seems to proceed from an advantageous commerce, which is said to employ seven thousand tons of shipping. The expenses of the government of this province, which are very considerable, are supposed to be more than counterbalanced by the advantages of its trade, which consists chiefly in furs.

According to an actual enumeration ordered by general Haldimand in 1784, the population of the Upper and Lower Canada, amounted to one hundred and thirteen thousand and twelve, exclusive of ten thousand loyalists, who had retired into that province. From the natural increase and emigration, the inhabitants of Canada may, at this period, be reasonably supposed to amount to about two hundred thousand.

Canada has no political importance or relations, but in connexion with Great Britain. If ever that should be dissolved, it will probably be incorporated into the federal union. While it remained a French colony, it was a thorn in the side of the neighbouring English colonies. During the revolutionary war, it was equally a means of detriment to the United States. In the former case, Indian ferocity was worked upon by French policy to the injury of the inhabitants, and the destruction of the settlements of the adjacent Protestant English colonies. In the latter, English policy in like manner prevailed on the Indians, to act in the same cruel manner against the United States, who were re-

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sisting the oppression and violence of Great Britain. Since the peace of 1783, Canada has crippled the financial operations of the United States, by administering facilities to smuggling on the long line of the adjoining borders of the lakes, and for evading their municipal regulations for embargoes; and in various other particulars, has been an inconvenient neighbour.

The French is the general language, and as the Canadians derive their origin from France, their manners and customs are entirely French, and a considerable portion of the gaiety and urbanity of that nation has descended to them from their ancestors. The same may be said of their national character. But it is among the French of the seventeenth, and the first part of the eighteenth century, rather than those of the present day, that we must look for the Canadian manners and character. In modern France, manners, ideas and character, have undergone a change, in which Canada has had no share.

NOVA SCOTIA, INCLUDING NEW BRUNSWICK.

Nova Scotia, was, in the year 1784, divided into two governments, of which one is called New Brunswick, and the other retains its ancient appellation. We include them both in the same description, as little difference is perceptible in their physical or moral circumstances.

This country, situated between forty-three degrees, and forty-nine degrees north latitude, and extending about three hundred and sixty miles in length, and about two hundred and fifty in breadth, is bounded on the north by the river St. Lawrence; on the east, by the Gulf of St. Lawrence, and the Atlantic ocean; on the south by the same ocean; and by Canada and New England on the west. Nova Scotia is the easternmost, and New Brunswick the westernmost province. The face of the country is neither mountainous, nor quite level. There are several rivers, among which, those of Annapolis and St. John, are the most considerable, besides some extensive lakes. One of these

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in New Brunswick, is about thirty miles in length, and nine in breadth. The bay of Fundy, between the two provinces, extends no less than one hundred and fifty miles within land, and the ebb and flow of the tide is from forty-five to sixty feet. A great part of the country is covered with forests. The soil is, in general, thin and barren; but on the banks of the rivers, and in some other parts it is sufficiently fertile, producing large crops of grass, hemp, and flax. The climate is extremely disagreeable, as well as unhealthy. During a great part of the year, the atmosphere is clouded with thick fogs, and in winter the cold is intense. The vegetable productions afford no great abundance nor variety, except in the article of timber. The soil and the climate are both unfavourable to the cultivation of grain, and the inhabitants do not raise provisions sufficient for their own consumption. The fisheries compensate, in some measure, for the sterility of the soil. The principal is that of cod, on the Cape Sable coast. The chief town of Nova Scotia, is Halifax, on the bay of Chebucto. It has a good harbour, where a small squadron of ships of war commonly lie for the purpose of protecting the fishery. Halifax is supposed to contain fifteen thousand inhabitants. The other towns are of little importance.

Notwithstanding the forbidding aspect of Nova Scotia, it was here, that some of the first European settlements in North America were formed. The first grant of lands in this province, was made by James I. to his secretary, sir William Alexander, from whom it obtained the name of Nova Scotia, or New Scotland. Since that time, it has frequently been transferred from one private proprietor to another, and alternately possessed by the French and the English, until it was confirmed to the latter, in 1713, by the peace of Utrecht. It was, however, in a great measure, neglected till the year 1749, when about three thousand families, sent thither at the expense of government, built the town of Halifax, now the capital of Nova Scotia, and the centre of its trade.

The commerce of so unproductive a settlement, cannot

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be very extensive; but it is of considerable importance to Great Britain. The British exports to Nova Scotia consist chiefly of linen and woollen cloths, fishing tackle, and rigging for ships. The imports from that country are timber, and the produce of the fisheries. By the erection of saw mills, Nova Scotia may aid in supplying the West India islands with lumber, which, together with the produce of the fisheries, must constitute an important commerce, equally beneficial to both.

ISLAND OF CAPE BRETON.

This island is separated from Nova Scotia by a strait of only one mile in breadth. It is about one hundred miles in length, and eighty in breadth. The country is covered with numerous lakes and forests. After various experiments, the soil has been found totally unfit for agriculture. Except in the hilly parts, the surface of the ground appears to have but little solidity, being every where covered with moss and water. The climate is excessively cold, foggy, and unwholesome. This island has some mines of coal; but, with the exception of timber, it can scarcely boast of any vegetable productions. The zoology of Cape Breton is not much richer than its botany. The scarcity of pasture prevents the increase of cattle; and the wild animals are far from being numerous.

The island of Cape Breton was discovered by the French, about the year 1500, and was then supposed to be a part of the continent. They did not, however, take possession of it till the year 1713; when they erected Fort Dauphin. In 1720, Louisburg was built, and made the principal settlement. The island remained in the possession of the French till 1745; when it was captured, for the crown of Great Britain, by a body of troops from New England. At the peace of Aix-la-Chapelle, in 1748, this island was restored to France; but, in 1758, it was again reduced under the dominion of Great Britain, and has ever since remained in her possession.

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The commerce of Cape Breton consists wholly in the produce of its fisheries. The population of this island, in 1745, was computed at four thousand; at present, it is supposed not to exceed one thousand. The soil and climate are such, as render it unfit for the residence of any but fishermen.

The island of St. John, at a small distance from the western shore of Cape Breton is about sixty miles in length, by thirty in breadth; and said to be rich and fertile. The number of inhabitants is estimated at about five thousand.

NEWFOUNDLAND.

The island of Newfoundland, extending from forty-six degrees, forty minutes, to fifty-one degrees, forty minutes, north latitude, is about three hundred geographical miles in its greatest length, from north to south, and about two hundred and fifty in its greatest breadth, from east to west. Its form is somewhat triangular. The face of the country, as far as it is known, is hilly, and covered with forests. It is watered by several rivers, and has many large and commodious harbours. The soil, as far as it has been explored, is rocky and barren. The climate is exceedingly disagreeable; the cold is severe, and of long continuance; and in summer, the heat, though of short duration, is violent. The coasts are entirely subject to fogs, attended with almost continual storms of snow and sleet. With the exception of a short time in summer, the sky is generally overcast with thick clouds. The only vegetable production of any importance is timber, of which there is great abundance. The creations of animated nature are, on this island, of as little importance as those of the vegetable kingdom: but, if the land be a scene of sterility, the sea that washes its shores is an inexhaustible source of wealth and plenty. Ever since the first discovery of its importance, the cod fishery on the banks of Newfoundland has been an object of industrious enterprise, and a mine of gold to the nations that have engaged in the pursuit. The chief towns in

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Newfoundland are Placentia, St. John, and Bonavista; but they are little more than fishing stations. There are not more than one thousand families which remain during the winter season.

Newfoundland was discovered in 1497, by John and Sebastian Cabot; but its fishery is not mentioned till the year 1517. The sovereignty of this island has been claimed and possessed alternately by England and France: it was finally ceded to England in 1713, and the last treaty of peace confirmed to both nations the right of fishing. The United States of America, also enjoy this right, by the treaty of peace in 1783.

The commerce of Newfoundland, consists entirely in its fisheries; but it is of great value both as a source of national wealth, and as a nursery of seamen. The fishery is computed to yield about three hundred thousand pounds sterling, per annum, from the fish sold in the Catholic countries. Great Britain and North America, annually employ three thousand sail of small craft in this fishery, on board of which, and on shore to cure and pack the fish, are upwards of one hundred thousand hands. Fisheries, indeed, are a branch of commerce, of which the extent can be limited only by the consumption, as the article is inexhaustible.

THE BERMUDAS, OR SOMMER ISLANDS,

Lie almost at an equal distance from Nova Scotia, and the West Indies. They are four in number, the chief is that of St. George, in which is the capital town of the same name, containing about five hundred houses, built of a soft free-stone, and about three thousand inhabitants. The houses are white as snow, and when beheld from an eminence, exhibit a striking contrast with the greenness of the cedars, and the verdure of the pasture grounds and islands. Over this romantic scenery, a perpetual spring prevails, and these advantages are heightened by the salubrity of the climate. The Bermudians are mostly sea faring people, and few of the men are long at home. These

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islands are in thirty-two degrees north latitude, and about nine hundred miles distant from South Carolina, the nearest part of the continent of America. They were first discovered in 1517, by John Bermudas, a Spaniard; but being afterwards neglected, were again brought into notice, by the shipwreck of sir George Sommers, in 1609. They are extremely populous. The island of St. George is a continued village. The government is conducted by a governor, appointed by the crown, a council, and a general assembly.

ABORIGINAL AMERICA.

The extensive regions which stretch from the northern and western borders of Canada, to the shores of the Arctic and Pacific Oceans, may be denominated Aboriginal, as they are still possessed by the native tribes. They seem destined to be the last retreat, and secure asylum of the Aboriginal Americans; the vigorous climate, and scanty vegetation of these countries offering no temptation to avarice or ambition. A very slight sketch of these solitary regions is all that can possibly be given, and all indeed that is requisite. We shall begin with the northern and eastern, and proceed to the central parts.

GREENLAND,

Which extends from sixty degrees, to seventy-six degrees, north latitude, presents a most dreary aspect, exhibiting scarcely any thing but a vast assemblage of rocks, ice, and snow. Of its topography, little is known, but it appears to contain mountains of a prodigious elevation, as we are told, that some of them may be seen at the distance of fifty leagues. The famous ice blink, is one of the most sublime appearances of nature. It is an astonishing congeries of ice, stretching across the mouth of an inlet of the sea, and forming a range of magnificent arches of twenty-four miles in length, and about two in breadth. The arches

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are from fourteen to forty yards in height. This immense mass of ice reflects a splendour, resembling the aurora borealis, which is discerned at the distance of many leagues. The soil of Greenland, except in some small districts on the western coasts, has never been examined, but whatever may be its quality, a great part of the country being covered with eternal frost and snow, all the powers of vegetation are checked. The most severe cold commences in January, and soon becomes so piercing, that rocks are often split through by the intenseness of the frost. The Danish missionaries inform us, that the ice and hoar frost reached from the chimney, to the mouth of their stove, without being thawed by the heat of the fire; that the doors and walls were plastered over with frost; that beds were frozen to the bedsteads; and linen to the drawers. From the end of April, to the beginning of November, the inhabitants encamp in their tents, but it is not till June, that the surface of the ground is thawed, and the snows cease falling. In summer it is occasionally very hot. The only vegetables, are various kinds of grass and herbs. No grain can be produced. This dreary region is also destitute of forests. The only trees that are found, are a few small junipers, birches, and willows. Greenland supplies food for a few wild animals, as rein deer, white hares, foxes, and white bears. The neighbouring seas afford plenty of fish, and the sea fowl are numerous. The natives live by hunting, and fishing. The flesh of these animals, supplies them with food, and their skins with clothing. The seals, in particular, are valuable for both these purposes. Mr. Crantz supposes, that the population of this country may amount to seven thousand, but his opinion can only be regarded as a vague conjecture. It is said, that the country is inhabited as far as seventy-six degrees, but this appears scarcely probable. The natives are of a short stature, with long black hair, small eyes, and flat faces; and greatly resemble the Laplanders and Samoieds of Europe. In hunting and fishing, and in the construction of their canoes, they discover great ingenuity. They are of a lively and cheerful temper, strongly

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attached to their families, their friends, and their native country. Some of them who have been kidnapped, and carried to Copenhagen, could not, amidst the pleasures and plenty of the Danish capital, forget their former attachments, nor reconcile themselves to their new situation. In regard to religion, the Greenlanders are said to believe in the existence of one Supreme Being, and the immortality of the soul; and some affirm, that they hold the doctrine of transmigration. But the religious ideas of a people so barbarous, must be extremely obscure and confused. Their government, if such thing can be said to exist among them, is supposed to be of the patriarchal kind.

This remote and inhospitable region, has given rise to a circumstance, which may be considered as a phenomenon in history and physics. Greenland was, towards the end of the eighth century, discovered by the Icelanders. A colony was afterwards established in that country, and in process of time, became populous and flourishing. Christianity was propagated among the colonists, by missionaries from Norway and Iceland. They had many towns, churches, and convents, with an episcopal see, the bishop being suffragan to the archbishop of Drontheim. Greenland, together with Iceland, being reduced under the dominion of Norway, became, by the union of that kingdom with Denmark, in 1367, an appendage of the Danish monarchy. A constant intercourse was carried on between Greenland and Norway, until the year 1406. At that period, the last bishop was sent over, and soon afterwards the colony was totally lost. By some means or other, all communication between Denmark and Greenland was cut off, and the Danish colony sunk into oblivion. That a civilized colony, should thus suddenly disappear, after several centuries of fixed settlement, and regular communication with the parent countries, and while within less than a week's sail of Iceland, and still subject to Denmark, is perhaps, a circumstance unparalleled in history. It appears, however, equally astonishing that such a colony should have prospered during so long a period of time, in a country which now appears

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so inhospitable. The existence of this colony, however, is a fact of unquestionable authenticity; and during the long space of at least five centuries, it was well known to the European world.

This strange and abrupt cessation of all trade and intercourse, has been attributed to various causes. It has, by some, been supposed, that the colonists were extirpated by the natives; but there is no satisfactory evidence to support the conjecture. It has also been said, that an epidemical disease swept away most of the Greenland merchants and seamen. But the most probable supposition is, that a vast quantity of ice from the Arctic ocean, having drifted on the coast in some severe winter, had intercepted the communication between the land and the sea. This colony, being, in consequence, completely imprisoned by the frozen ocean, must have perished through want of supplies. That this was the case is something more than conjecture. Various expeditions have, in successive reigns been despatched from Denmark, for the express purpose of discovering the remains of the colony, if any such existed. It was at least expected that it might be ascertained, whether any descendants of the Europeans yet remained. All the vessels, however, sent out for that purpose, have found the eastern shore towards Iceland, where the principal colony was settled, totally inaccessible by reason of the vast accumulation of ice. Accidents of nearly a similar nature, but of shorter duration have occurred also in Iceland, where the immense quantity of ice drifting on the coast, has, during a long time, interrupted all communication with the sea, and by preventing supplies from abroad, caused many of the inhabitants to perish by famine. It is evident, that since the latter part of the fourteenth century, a very great change has taken place in the northern regions, chiefly from the encroachments of the Arctic ice. Ever since that period, the eastern coast of Greenland, the seat of the ancient colony, which was before without difficulty, visited every summer, has been found absolutely inaccessible; while a range of impassable mountains covered with perpetual ice

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and snow, precludes the possibility of approach from the west.

The western coast of Greenland, has been explored by Davis, and other English navigators, but Great Britain has never attempted to establish any colony in this unpromising region. In 1721, the Greenland Company at Bergen, in Norway, established a colony on the western coast, in about sixty-four degrees north latitude. These new colonists were accompanied by Mr. Egede, a pious Norwegian clergyman. This gentleman remained many years in Greenland. Being actuated by an ardent curiosity, and at the same time strongly impressed with an idea of the melancholy situation of the Icelandic colony, if it still existed, he made an attempt to reach the eastern district, by coasting along the southern shores, but found it impracticable to effect his purpose. In 1728, his Danish majesty caused horses to be transported to Greenland, in order to facilitate the means of travelling over land, from the western to the eastern district, but the immense mountains of ice and snow in the interior, rendered all access from this quarter not less difficult than from the ocean. The impossibility of reaching the place where this famous colony was formerly seated, seems now to be fully proved, and its venerable relics locked up in eternal ice, will, in all probability, never be discovered.

NEW BRITAIN.

New Britain comprehends the countries of Labrador, New North Wales, and New South Wales, all lying contiguous to Hudson's Bay. Great Britain claims the sovereignty of those regions, and possesses some forts in them. Notwithstanding these, and some other scattered settlements or factories, the whole extent of country may be considered as belonging to the Aborigines, and probably no attempt will ever be made to subdue and colonize the interior.

The face of the country is various; that part called Labrador, is full of frightful mountains, many of which are of

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a stupendous height. The soil produces nothing but moss, or in some places a few blighted, and thinly scattered shrubs. The severity of the climate is equal to the barrenness of the soil, and greatly resembles that of Greenland. Even in the parallel of fifty-seven, the cold is in winter excessive. The rivers are covered with ice, eight feet in thickness. Port wine, and even brandy freezes into a solid mass. Through the intenseness of the frost, the rocks often split with a tremendous noise, equal to that of the heaviest artillery, and throw out splinters to an astonishing distance. In May, the ice begins to disappear. The hot weather commences about the middle of June, and the heat is sometimes violent. The thunder storms, though not frequent, are tremendous. In the winter season, the beauties of the firmament, in some measure compensate for the horrid prospect which the face of the country displays. Mock suns, and haloes frequently appear. The sun rises and sets with a large cone of yellowish light. The night is enlivened by the aurora borealis, which diffuses an endless variety of lights and colours, over the whole concave of the sky; and the stars shine with a fiery redness. But as this country extends from fifty degrees, forty minutes, to sixty-three degrees north latitude, the climate admits of some variety. In the parallel of sixty degrees north, all vegetation ceases. A late traveller, however, who, at different intervals, resided a long time in those regions, thinks that the southern parts might admit of some improvement. But, it must be observed, this imperfect sketch of Labrador is taken only from the sea coast. The interior has never been, and, in all probability, never will be explored. The animals of these frozen deserts, are white and black bears, wolves, beaver, rein deer, and numerous animals of the fur kind. The birds are those common to the arctic regions. The natives are chiefly Esquimaux, apparently the same race, as the Greenlanders, and resembling the Samoieds and Laplanders. But, in some of the mountainous parts, another race exists that might afford a curious subject of enquiry. They live in wigwams or tents, covered with skins and the rind

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of birch trees; their food being rein deer, and various other kinds of wild animals. They resemble gypsies, with something of the French feature, and appear to be descendants of the French settlers in Canada, as they adhere to the Roman Catholic form of worship, and resort to Quebec for the purpose of religion. What could induce Frenchmen to retire into these dreary regions and habituate themselves to a savage life, we are at a loss to imagine. The most probable conjecture is, that they have originated from a mixed breed of French and Canadian savages, who for some unknown reason, have fixed their residence in this uninviting country.

NEW NORTH AND SOUTH WALES.

The countries commonly called New North and South Wales, are less mountainous than Labrador, on the eastern side. As far inland as the settlements of the Hudson's Bay Company, the country is flat. In some parts, however, the coasts, and the adjacent lands, are high and rocky. Several parts of the flat country are moderately wooded with pines, birch, willows, &c. In some places there is sufficient ground for tolerable pasture. The face of the country has not quite the same aspect of unconquerable sterility as that of Labrador, but the climate is little less rigorous.

Hudson's Bay was first explored in 1610, by the enterprising navigator whose name it bears. He is said to have penetrated as far as eighty degrees, thirty minutes, north latitude: but the fact is doubtful. Subsequent attempts were made at further discoveries; and, in the month of December, 1770, Mr. Hearne was employed, by the Hudson's Bay Company, to undertake a journey over land, which seems to have ascertained, in one point at least, the extent of America towards the north. This gentleman proceeded over land with a company of Indians, as far as the Copper Mine River, at which he arrived on the fourteenth of June, 1771; and following it all the way to the sea, found it encumbered, throughout all that part of its course, with shoals and falls. On the seventeenth of June, he came, as

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he supposed, within view of the sea. Mr. Hearne also visited the Copper Mines about thirty miles south-east from the mouth of the river. The copper is found in lumps, and the Indians beat it out by the help of fire and stones. The Esquimaux, near the coast of what he conceived to be the Arctic Ocean, are of a dirty copper colour, and of a shorter stature than those more to the south. Their kettles are made of lapis ollaris, and their knives and hatchets of copper. Mr. Hearne finished his adventurous journey the thirtieth of June, 1772.

The Hudson's Bay Company, established in 1670, claims an extensive territory, not less than one thousand three hundred and fifty geographical miles in length, by an indeterminate breadth. This vast empire of ice and snow, can be of little value, in regard to its vegetable productions; and, in all probability, will never be colonized by Europeans, or their descendants. It is of importance only on account of the trade in furs, and the fisheries on the coast of Labrador. The Indians, by means of the rivers, which discharge themselves into Hudson's Bay from the west, bring their furs from far distant regions, and barter them at the factories for all kinds of British manufactures. This trade is extremely advantageous to Great Britain; for, the articles taken by the Indians, in exchange for their furs, are all of British fabric, and frequently such as, to use the mercantile phrase, are drugs in the market, savages not being very nice in their choice. The furs also, which are brought to England, furnish articles for an advantageous trade with other nations.

CENTRAL PARTS OF NORTH AMERICA.

The central parts of North America were almost totally unknown, before Mr. Hearne performed his journey. Since that time, the still more difficult and laborious expedition of Mr. Mackenzie, has thrown some additional light on their obscure geography. This adventurous traveller, in his two journeys or voyages, for they were both performed

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mostly in canoes on the rivers, reached the Pacific, and apparently also the Arctic Ocean. He commenced his first voyage in June, 1789. Embarking in a canoe at Fort Chepiwian, he proceeded along the Slave river, till he reached the Slave lake, in latitude sixty-two degrees, north; he describes the Slave river as very considerable, and found the lake covered with ice, although in the month of June. He then entered the river, now called by his name, and proceeded to its mouth. Mr. Mackenzie's whole voyage occupied the space of one hundred and two days; being completed on the twelfth of September. On the tenth of October, 1792, he began his second journey from Fort Chepiwian, and proceeded up the Peace river or Unjiga, in a south-west direction, till he reached the stoney mountains. The canoe being with some difficulty transported over the heights, he and his companions embarked on a small river, on the western side, which soon brought them into the Ouregan or Columbia. After proceeding a considerable way on that great western river, Mr. Mackenzie travelled over land to the Pacific Ocean, in fifty-two degrees, twenty minutes, north latitude. In some parts of his route he passed over a beautiful and variegated country, consisting of hills and lawns, adorned with groves of poplars, and enlivened with numerous herds of elks on the uplands, and buffaloes on the plains. Beavers are common in these countries, and the tracks of the moose deer are sometimes discovered. Some of the Indian tribes inhabiting these regions, especially towards the north, were observed to be of a low stature, with round faces, high cheek bones, black hair and eyes, and their complexion of a swarthy yellow. Towards the Pacific Ocean, the people are fairer and taller. One man in particular, was not less than six feet four inches in height. Their eyes are not dark, like those of the other Indians, but of a grey colour, with a tinge of red. The dress of the men consists merely of a robe made of the bark of the cedar tree, rendered as fine as hemp, and sometimes adorned with borders of red and yellow. To this robe the women add a short apron. They

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have canoes, some of which are forty-five feet in length. These regions are watered by several considerable rivers. The principal of those that are known, are the Unjiga, which is supposed to run a course of about one thousand seven hundred miles before it falls into the Arctic Ocean; the Saskashawin, which, rising on the eastern side of the long range of mountains, passes through the great lake of Winnepig, and after a course of not less than one thousand miles, falls into Hudson's Bay; and the Ouregan, or Columbia, which, after a course of about seven hundred miles discharges itself into the Pacific Ocean. These rivers, however, are very imperfectly known in geography, and ages may revolve before they acquire any historical or commercial importance.

The countries here imperfectly sketched from scanty materials, are the seats of various native and unconquered tribes. Their population, however, is very small. What we have long been accustomed to call Indian nations, are only clans, or families, of which the enumeration would be tedious. The principal tribe is the Esquimaux, who appears to extend over the whole northern extremity of America, from Greenland to the northern Archipelago. To these might be added, numerous tribes, both in the interior, and towards the Pacific ocean, many of whom are totally unknown to Europeans. Their manners and ideas are such as are natural to a savage state. Their wants being few, and their mutual dependance on one another but small, their union is very imperfect, and their natural liberty almost unimpaired. There is scarcely any subordination, either in their civil, or domestic government. In most of the tribes the sachem, or chief, is elective; but a council of old men is chosen, whose advice determines his conduct in all affairs of importance. He neither possesses, nor claims any great authority. His office is to propose, rather than command, and all obedience is voluntary. When a war is determined on, a chief arises, and offers himself as their leader. Such as are willing to follow him, stand up and sing the war song. The chief has scarcely any criminal jurisdiction. The punish-

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ment of offenders belongs entirely to the person or family injured. Their resentments are excessive, and are neither extinguished nor abated by the lapse of time, but are transmitted from generation to generation, until an opportunity of vengeance is found. Sometimes, however, the offended party is satisfied by a compensation. In case of murder, this commonly consists of a captive taken in war, who, being substituted in the place of the person murdered, assumes his name, and is adopted into his family. The American savages are distinguished by their unparalleled contempt of pain and death; by the horrible torments which they inflict on their captive enemies; and the astonishing fortitude with which they suffer the same, when they fall to their lot.

Nothing, in the history of man, forms a stronger contrast than the cruelty of these savages to their enemies, and their affectionate regard for their friends. The latter is sufficiently evinced in the lamentations with which they bewail the death of any member of their society; but is still more strikingly demonstrated in the general feast of the dead, which is commonly celebrated every tenth, but in some tribes every eighth year. At this pious and awful, but disgusting solemnity, all those who have died during this interval, are disinterred, being sought up from all quarters, and brought to the general receptacle. A great feast is prepared to their honour; their actions are commemorated; every thing that can excite affection is recalled to remembrance; and strangers, sometimes, come many hundreds of miles to join in the general condolence. The solemnity concludes by depositing those venerable remains in the place of general interment, in a large pit, dug for that purpose. The whole is conducted with the strongest demonstration of the most pungent sorrow, and a striking display of savage magnificence. Each person present takes from the pit a little earth, which is preserved as a precious relic; and each one makes an offering to the dead, of something that is esteemed most valuable. In regard to religion, it appears that all the American tribes believe in the existence of a Supreme Being, and of a future state, in which those who have been courageous in war, or

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skilful in hunting, will be rewarded with endless felicity. This appears to constitute the sum of their faith; the rest of their religious ideas are, as it may reasonably be supposed, various, confused, and indeterminate.

The western coast of North America has been explored, first, by the Russians: and, successively, by Cook, Vancouver, Mears, Dixon, La Peyrouse, and other able navigators; but Mackenzie has the merit of having first reached the Pacific Ocean, by a progress from the east.

SPANISH DOMINIONS.

NORTH AMERICA.

The Spanish empire in North America may be considered as extending from seven degrees, thirty minutes, to thirty-nine degrees, thirty minutes, north latitude, reckoning as far as that nation has any settlements. But the Spaniards lay claim to the whole north-west part of America, which they include in the government of California.

The North American possessions of Spain consist of three grand divisions. The principal of these is Mexico, or New Spain. The others are New Mexico, and Florida. New Mexico includes the interior country west of Louisiana. Of each of these principal divisions, separate descriptions will be given.

MEXICO, OR NEW SPAIN.

The face of the country is, in general, abrupt and mountainous, but flat and low near the coasts. The mountains, and many of the plains, are covered with thick forests.

The interior of Mexico is almost every where encumbered with high mountains. That of Orizaba, is regarded as the highest in Mexico. It became volcanic in A. D. 1545, and continued in that state till 1565; since which time there has been no appearance of irruption. It is of a conical form: the summit is covered with perpetual

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snow, and the sides are adorned with beautiful forests of pines, cedars, and other valuable trees; so that it forms a magnificent object. The detached mountains, situated at about the distance of thirty miles to the south-east of the city of Mexico, are likewise volcanic, and perpetually covered with snow. These mountains supply the capital, and other places, to the distance of forty miles round, with snow for cooling their liquors. The mountain of Juruyo, is a singular phenomenon. It was originally a small hill, which, in 1760, burst with furious volcanic shocks, and continued to eject fire and burning stones till 1766, when it had formed three high mountains, of which the circumference was not less than six miles.* Many other of the Mexican mountains, are of a great elevation; and no fewer than five of them have, at different times, been volcanic. That of Guatimala raged furiously in 1773, during the tremendous earthquakes which destroyed that great city, and buried eight thousand families under its ruins.

From the narrow dimensions of the country, extending about six hundred miles in length, and not above one hundred and fifty in medial breadth, between the two seas, the rivers have only a short course, and are not of great importance to inland navigation and commerce. Those of Palmas, Panuco, Tabasco, and St. Juan, fall into the Gulf of Mexico. The Guadalaxara is the largest of those that discharge themselves into the Pacific Ocean.

In Mexico there are several lakes, which embellish the country, and afford some convenience to inland commerce. The largest of these is that of Nicaragua, which extends about one hundred and seventy miles in length, from south-east to north-west, by about half as much in medial breadth, and has by the river of St. Juan, a grand outlet into the Gulf of Mexico. By a canal from this lake to the Pacific Ocean, it is probable that a complete passage between the two seas, which has been the object of so many fruitless expeditions, might be effected at no enormous expense, and in the most

* Clavigero, Hist. of Mexico, vol. i. p. 14.

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direct course that could be desired. But as almost the whole trade of the Spaniards in those parts, centres in the city of Mexico, such a communication might have an unfavourable interference with the interests of that capital; and this may probably concur with their colonial jealousy, to prevent such an undertaking. The lake of Chapala, in the north-west part of the province, is also of considerable extent, being about sixty miles in length, by twenty in breadth. There are several other lakes of inferior dimensions and importance.

The mineralogy of Mexico, is well known to be unusually rich, having been famous from the period of its first discovery. The mountains abound with every kind of metal, and an infinite variety of fossils. Gold is found in many parts of the country. The chief silver mines are said to be situated about two hundred miles to the north-west of Mexico. But the Spanish writers observe a mysterious silence, in regard to the local situation, and other particulars relating to their mines. Mexico, being the centre of the Spanish power and commerce in the new world, and less remote from hostile neighbours than Peru, the national jealousy seems to have been if possible greater in regard to this country, than to the South American colonies. It is, therefore, extremely difficult to procure any authentic intelligence concerning the actual state of Mexico, especially in what relates to its mines. According to the statement of the coinage given by Helm, from the official register of the mints of Mexico, Lima, Potosi and St. Jago, in 1790, it seems that the Mexican mines produce a greater abundance of the precious metals, than those of South America. The whole coinage amounted to twenty-eight million three hundred and seventy-six thousand eight hundred and thirty-five piastres, of which eighteen million, sixty-three thousand six hundred and eighty-eight, were issued from the mint of Mexico. The same author accounts for this striking difference by the following considerations. In the first place, Mexico, he says greatly surpasses the other parts of Spanish America, in population. Secondly, being much nearer to

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the parent country, it is better enabled to enforce obedience to her laws and regulations, and to promote the speculations of enterprising industry. Thirdly, this province possesses great advantages over the others, in regard to royal and private banks. And fourthly, mining speculations meet with great encouragement from every commercial house in Mexico. To these causes, and not to any natural advantages, Mr. Helm ascribes the superior quantity, and produce, from the Mexican mines, both of gold and silver, which he esteems far less numerous and opulent, than those of Peru. Copper and tin are to be found in this country, and the ancient Mexicans are said to have used them for money. The mountains, also, produce jasper, marble, alabaster, and great quantities of loadstone.

The mineral waters are numerous, and of various qualities—nitrous, sulphurous, vitriolic, aluminous, with springs of a petrifying nature, and others remarkable for their extraordinary heat. Few countries abound more in mineral waters, but probably through want of proper investigation, their medicinal virtues are generally unknown.

The soil appears to be exceedingly fertile, except in the most mountainous tracts, but the mountains themselves, are clothed to a considerable height, with verdant forests, and interspersed with delightful vales.

Although the greatest part of Mexico, lies between the tropics, the unequal surface of the country renders the climate exceedingly various. Moisture, however, seems in general to predominate, though not to such a degree as in Terra Firma and Darien. The maritime parts of Mexico, are exceedingly hot, and unhealthy; the atmosphere being so sultry and heavy, as to cause great perspiration, even in the depth of winter;* while the inland parts near the high mountains, are so cold, as often to suffer from frosts in the dog days. The rest of the interior, however, which is the most populous, enjoys a mild and benign climate. From April to September, the rains, which generally fall every

* Clavigero, History of Mexico, vol. i. p. 11.

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afternoon, are abundant. Violent storms of thunder and lightning are also frequent, and earthquakes are an additional circumstance of terror.

The productions of Mexico, favoured as it is by the fertility of the soil, and the genial nature of the climate, are abundant and various, almost beyond description. Besides those which are common to the West Indies, and other tropical countries, Mexico boasts of a great number of peculiar indigenous productions, which enrich and adorn this fertile and opulent region. Among these must be ranked a variety of drugs used for dyeing and medicinal purposes. The jalap tree, with those which yield the balsams of Capivi and Tolu, are natives of this country. The shores of the bays of Honduras and Campeachy, have been celebrated from the time of their first discovery, for their immense forests of logwood, and mahogany; and the neighbourhood of Guatimala is distinguished for its indigo. The different species of timber are numerous, and some of the trees are said to be fifty feet in circumference. The trees which adorn the forests, and the flowers which embellish the meads and gardens of Mexico, would afford ample matter for volumes of natural history. In addition to the native productions, a great variety of fruits and grains have been introduced from Europe. Most of the European fruits, attain to great perfection in Mexico; and wheat, barley, beans, peas, and rice, are cultivated with success.

The zoology of Mexico comprises a numerous catalogue of animals, which have been described by Buffon, Pennant, and other naturalists. The chief of the ferocious kind is a large species of panther, sometimes called the American tiger. The horned cattle, and other domestic animals of Europe, are in abundance. But of all classes of animated nature, the feathered tribe are particularly numerous and curious. Swans, geese, ducks, and pelicans, are seen in great numbers. Ducks, in particular, of which there are said to be at least twenty different species, are so numerous, as to cover the fields, and to appear, at a distance, like flocks of sheep. It is said, that no less than two hun-

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dred species of birds are peculiar to this country; more than seventy species of which afford a wholesome and agreeable food; while thirty-five are distinguished for the superlative beauty of their plumage. The ornithology of Mexico, indeed, presents an abundance and variety, equal, at least, to what is seen in any other part of the globe. Among the numerous insects, the cochineal fly is celebrated, for its use in manufactures. The animal, vegetable, and mineral kingdoms of Mexico would afford ample materials for the pen of the philosopher.

Among the natural curiosities of this variegated country, may be reckoned the volcanoes already described, as well as many stupendous cascades. About one hundred miles south-east from the capital, is the Ponte di Dios, or the Bridge of God. This is a natural bridge, over the deep river Aquetoyaque, which is used as a highway for coaches, and all kinds of carriages. Among the romantic cataracts, that of the river Guadalaxara, between the city of that name, and the lake of Chapala, is reckoned the most remarkable.

Mexico, like other American countries, is of too recent civilization, to exhibit any monuments of antiquity. But the city of Mexico may be regarded as an artificial curiosity. It has always been represented as standing on an island, or rather an assemblage of islands, in the lake of that name, and as accessible only by three causeways, across the shallow waters that separate it from the main land. Such was the situation of the ancient capital of Montezuma; and it is certain, that modern Mexico stands on the same ground; but a considerable part of the lake has been drained, by means of a canal cut through the mountains. Mexico, therefore, is now seated, not on an island, but on the banks of the lake, in a fen, crossed by numerous canals. The houses are all built on piles, as the ground, in many places, gives way, and several edifices are observed to have gradually sunk, some of them more than six feet, without any visible alteration in the body of the building. The streets are very wide, perfectly straight, and, in general,

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intersect one another at right angles. There are three squares. They are tolerably regular, and each is ornamented with a fountain in the middle. On the north side of the city is the Alameda, or public promenade, which is a large square, with a rivulet running quite round it, and a jet d'eau in the middle. Eight walks, having each two rows of trees, terminate at this basin, in the form of a star. Facing the Alameda, and at the distance of only a few paces, is the Quemadero, the place for burning the Jews, and other unhappy victims of the inquisition. The Quemadero is an inclosure, filled with ovens, into which are thrown, over the walls, the poor wretches who are condemned to be burnt alive, by judges, professing a religion, of which the first precept is charity.

The houses of Mexico are tolerably well built. The palace of the viceroy is a firm and substantial structure, comprising within its circuit, three handsome court-yards, each of which has a fountain in the middle. Behind this, is the mint, a noble building, where upwards of one hundred workmen are constantly employed for the king, in coining piastres.

The most sumptuous buildings are the churches, chapels, and convents, many of which are splendidly ornamented. The cathedral, especially, is remarkable for its rich and costly decorations. The railing round the high altar, is of solid silver; and there is also a silver lamp, so capacious, that it is said to be capable of receiving three men. This lamp is adorned with figures of lions' heads, and other ornaments of pure gold. The inside columns of the cathedral are hung with rich crimson velvet, decorated with a broad gold fringe. The profusion of riches in the numerous churches of Mexico is astonishing. Gold and precious stones are lavished on the sacred vessels, and ornaments; and the images of the Holy Virgin, and the saints, are either of massy silver, or covered with the most costly drapery.

The city of Mexico is the abode of all the most opulent merchants, and the centre of the commerce carried on with Europe, Manilla, &c. by the ports of Vera Cruz, and Aca-

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pulco. Its riches, therefore, are undoubtedly immense. In regard to its manners and customs, as all the great officers and principal ecclesiastics are natives of Spain, and the viceroys are sent every three years from the parent country, the influx of Spaniards must naturally be supposed to direct the national taste. The Creoles are, in every part of America, known to be more luxurious and effeminate than the Europeans. The population of Mexico has been variously estimated: but we are told by Dr. Robertson, that it amounts at least to one hundred and fifty thousand, and it does not appear that the number of the inhabitants has decreased.*

The vale of Mexico displays the most luxuriant fertility; but the environs of the city must undoubtedly be unpleasant, and the situation insalubrious. Except the Alameda already mentioned, there is no other walk in or near Mexico. All the adjacent country is swampy ground, intersected by numerous canals. The climate is not so scorching as in several other parts of the torrid, or even of the temperate zone. But the coolness of the air, arises from the humidity of the ground and atmosphere. The effects, which so great an abundance of moisture in a tropical climate, must have on the human frame, may be easily imagined. These, indeed, are too frequently displayed in dreadful epidemical diseases, among which, that called the black vomit, another name for the yellow fever of the large cities of the United States, is the scourge of Mexico. In 1736, and the following year, it swept away more than one-third of the inhabitants of that city: and in 1761, and 1762, the same disease, in conjunction with an epidemical small-pox, almost depopulated the whole country, and carried off at least twenty-five thousand persons in the capital. It is somewhat singular, that this distemper always begins among the Indians, who are natives of the country, and attacks them more frequently than the Europeans.

New Spain contains several other cities of considerable magnitude, but of which there is little recent intelligence.

* History of America, vol. ii. page 497, note 73.

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Puebla de los Angelos is supposed to contain sixty thousand, and Guadalaxara, thirty thousand inhabitants. Guatimala, which was destroyed by an earthquake in 1773, when no fewer than eight thousand families perished, must have been a very considerable city; and New Guatimala is already well inhabited. Indeed, the Spanish cities are far superior in population to those of the other European nations in America. Vera Cruz, and Acapulco, the former on the coast of the Mexican Gulf, and the latter, on that of the Pacific Ocean, are the two ports to the city of Mexico. Through these the trade of that capital is carried on with Spain, and the Philipine islands. But both of them being in disagreeable and unhealthy situations, are frequented by the opulent merchants only, at the arrival of the flotilla from Europe, and of the Acapulco ships from Manilla. At those seasons, Vera Cruz and Acapulco are crowded with people; but as soon as the business is transacted, they are almost deserted.

The origin of the Mexicans, as well as of the Peruvians, has been a subject of curious investigation, and a source of various conjecture. These two nations have been by many considered as a distinct race from the rest of the Americans. But the Mexicans, and Peruvians, seem, in regard to religion, language, and all other moral circumstances, to differ as much from each other, as from the rest of the aboriginal tribes. Perhaps, all these differences may have been the effect of situation and accident. But whether America was peopled from Asia, or Africa, it is not improbable that similar migrations might take place in different ages. On this supposition, Dr. Forster's conjecture, at least in regard to the Mexicans, appears the most plausible. That sagacious enquirer attributes their origin to the troops on board the fleet which Kublai Khan, in the thirteenth century, sent from China, for the intended conquest of Japan.* That great armament, having been scattered, and most of the vessels supposed to be lost by violent tem-

* Dr. Forster's Hist. Voyage in the North, p. 43.

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pests, it is not improbable, that some of them might reach the western coast of America. This hypothesis has a singular coincidence with the Mexican traditions, which assert, that their ancestors moved in successive migrations from unknown regions towards the north, and north-west, and established themselves in Anahuac; and that, about the beginning of the thirteenth century, a tribe more civilized than the rest, advanced from the borders of the Californian Gulf, and took possession of the vale of Mexico.* This æra remarkably coincides with the time of Kublai Khan's expedition, and seems to authorize the supposition, that the more polished tribe here mentioned, was a remnant of Mongolian and Tartar troops, that had saved themselves from the general wreck of the fleet. They were, for some time, governed by a council of chiefs, and from the most authentic accounts, the monarchical government commenced about one hundred and ninety-seven years before the Spanish conquest.

The unexpected success of Columbus, the conquests of Hispaniola and Cuba, with the successive discovery of new countries, which appeared one after another, opened an immense field to ambition and avarice. The spirit of enterprize among the Spaniards, had risen to a height, of which it is difficult at this time to conceive an idea, and their adventurers in the new world were ready to form, and to execute the most daring and desperate projects. The coasts of Mexico had already been discovered; and from the obscure and confused accounts which the Spaniards had received, that rich and extensive country, seemed to promise an ample field for adventurous enterprize. In 1518, Don Velasques, governor of Cuba, projected an expedition against Mexico: and desirous to arrogate to himself the glory and advantages of the conquest, he conferred the command on Hernando Cortez, a bold adventurer, whose abilities were equal to any undertaking, and whose fortune and rank were not such, as seemed calculated to inspire him with any

* Robertson's Hist. of America, vol. iii. p. 269.

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higher ideas, than of acting in perfect subordination to his employer. The event proved contrary to the expectations of Velasques. Before the expedition sailed from Cuba, he began to suspect the aspiring ambition of Cortez, and resolved to deprive him of the command. The latter, however, apprized of his design, and perfectly sure of the attachment of his followers, immediately set sail with eleven small vessels, of which the largest was only one hundred tons burden. His whole force consisted only of six hundred and seventeen soldiers and seamen; all volunteers, and men of the most daring resolution. With this small force, he undertook the conquest of a vast empire. Having landed on the continent, he laid the foundation of the town of Vera Cruz, and built a fortress sufficiently strong to resist the attacks of an Indian army. At his first arrival, he received a message from Montezuma, requiring to know his intentions, in visiting the country. Cortez announced himself as ambassador from the king of Spain, a most powerful monarch of the east, and declaring himself entrusted with such proposals, as he could impart only to the emperor in person, requested to be immediately conducted to the capital. The Mexican officers hesitated at this request, which they knew would be extremely embarrassing to Montezuma, whose mind had become harassed with alarming apprehensions ever since he had heard of the landing of the Spaniards on his coasts. During this interview, some painters in the train of the Mexican officers, were employed in sketching, in their rude manner, figures of the ships, the horses, the artillery, the soldiers, and whatever attracted their attention. Cortez, perceiving this, and being informed that the pictures were designed to be presented to Montezuma, in order to give him a just idea of these strange and wonderful objects, resolved to render the representations as striking as possible, by exhibiting such a spectacle, as might give both them, and their monarch, an awful impression of the irresistible force of his arms. The trumpets, by his order, sounded an alarm; the troops, in a moment, formed in order of battle; both cavalry and

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infantry performed their martial exercises and evolutions, while repeated discharges of the cannon, which were pointed against a thick forest adjoining the camp, made dreadful havoc amongst the trees. The Mexicans were struck with that amazement, which a spectacle so novel, so extraordinary, so terrible, and so much above their comprehension, might be expected to excite. Reports and representations of it were sent to Montezuma, who, as well as his subjects, conceived that the Spaniards were more than human beings; an opinion which Cortez took every opportunity of impressing on the minds of the Mexicans. Montezuma, afterwards, sent ambassadors with rich presents, to the Spanish camp, expressing the greatest friendship for Cortez, and the sovereign of Castile; but constantly requesting him to depart from his dominions. This was the purport of every message from the Mexican monarch. Cortez, however, continuing to advance; the request was changed into a command. Montezuma absolutely forbade him to approach the capital, and required his immediate departure from the country. The Spanish general, however, determined to proceed to Mexico, and concluded an alliance with the Caziques of Zempoalla and Quiabislan; who, being weary of Montezuma's tyranny, took this opportunity of revolting against his government. Several other chiefs followed their example, and Cortez soon perceived, that, although the Mexican empire was extensive, populous, and powerful, it was far from being firmly consolidated. This circumstance inspired him with new hopes of effecting its subjugation.

Previous to the commencement of his march towards Mexico, Cortez, resolving to shake off his dependance on the governor of Cuba, organized the new colony of Vera Cruz, on the model of the other Spanish governments, established in the new world. Having appointed as magistrates such officers as were most firmly attached to his person, and most ardently bent on pushing forward the expedition, he resigned into their hands the commission which he held under Velasques, and requested them to appoint a general, in the name of the king of Spain, whose

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person they represented, and whose authority, alone, they acknowledged; declaring, at the same time, his readiness to serve in the capacity of a common soldier, equally as in that of commander. By this judicious proceeding, he involved them in his rebellion against the governor of Cuba; and the affair terminated by his re-election to the chief command of the expedition, with a commission from the colony, under the authority of the Spanish crown. His next measure affords an evident proof of the ascendancy which he had gained over his followers, and of their ardour for carrying on the enterprise. He represented to them, in the most forcible terms, that it would be the highest degree of folly, to think of returning to poverty and disgrace, after having expended their whole fortunes in the equipment of the expedition—that they must absolutely resolve either to conquer or perish—that the ships were so much damaged as to be unfit for service, while their small force would derive a very considerable accession of strength, from the junction of one hundred men, necessarily left with the fleet. By these arguments, he convinced them of the necessity of fixing their hopes on what lay before them, without looking back, or suffering the idea of a retreat to enter their minds. With the consent of the whole army, the vessels were stripped of their sails, rigging, iron work, and other articles, which might become useful, and afterwards broken in pieces. Thus, from an effort of magnanimity, to which there are few parallels in history, a few hundred men voluntarily consented to shut themselves up in a hostile country, filled with powerful and unknown nations; and, having cut off every means of escape, left themselves without any resource but their own valour and perseverance.

Cortez landed in Mexico on the second of April, 1518; and, on the sixteenth of August, he began his march towards the metropolis, with five hundred foot, fifteen horse, and six field pieces. The rest of his men were left to garrison the fort of Vera Cruz. In his progress, he was interrupted by a war with the Tlascalans, a numerous and warlike people, whose impetuous valour, however, was

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obliged to yield to the superiority of European weapons and tactics. The Tlascalans, who were inveterate enemies to the Mexicans, having experienced what they now considered the invincible valour of the Spaniards, concluded with them a treaty of peace, and afterwards of alliance, and contributed in no small degree to the success of their enterprise.

Cortez, with his Spaniards, accompanied by six thousand of his new allies, immediately advanced towards Mexico. They were met, in different parts of their journey, by messengers from Montezuma, bearing rich presents, and sometimes inviting them to proceed, but at others, requesting them to retire. In this period of indecision, no measures were taken to oppose the progress of Cortez. Such was the embarrassment of the Mexican monarch, that the Spaniards were already at the gates of his capital, before he had determined whether to receive them as friends or as enemies.

Mexico, seated on islands near the western side of the lake, was inaccessible, except by three causeways, extending over the shallow waters. That of Tacuba, on the west, was a mile and a half in length; that of Tezcuco, on the north-west, extended three; and that of Cuoyacan, on the south, not less than six miles. On the east side, the city could be approached only by canoes. The Spaniards, being arrived on the borders of the lake, advanced along the causeway with great circumspection, and, on their near approach to the city, they were met by about one thousand persons, clothed in mantles of fine cotton, and adorned with plumes. They announced the approach of Montezuma, and were followed by about two hundred others, in a similar dress, adorned also with plumes, and marching in solemn silence. Next appeared a company of a higher rank, in shewy apparel, in the midst of whom was Montezuma, in a chair, or litter, richly ornamented with gold, and feathers of various colours, and carried on the shoulders of four of his principal officers, while others supported a canopy over his head. Thus surrounded with barba-

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ric pomp, did the Mexican monarch introduce into his capital, the subverter of his throne. He conducted the Spaniards into the city, assigned them quarters in a large building, encompassed with a stone wall, with towers at proper distances, and containing courts, and apartments, sufficiently spacious for their accommodation, and that of their allies. Here Cortez planted the artillery, posted centinels, and ordered his troops to preserve the same strictness of discipline, as if they had been encamped in the face of an enemy. During some time, the greatest harmony subsisted between the Spaniards and the Mexicans, and Montezuma made presents of such value not only to Cortez, and his officers, but also to the private men, as demonstrated the opulence of his kingdom. The Spaniards, however, soon began to reflect on their situation, shut up in Mexico, and surrounded by the waters of its lake. They perceived, that, by breaking down the bridges placed at intervals in the causeways, or by destroying part of the causeways themselves, their retreat might be rendered impracticable. The Tlascalans had earnestly dissuaded Cortez from venturing into Mexico, where, from so peculiar a situation, he might be enclosed as in a snare, out of which it would be impossible to escape. They also assured him, that the Mexican priests had, in the name of the gods, counselled their sovereign to admit the Spaniards into their capital, where he might with perfect security, cut them off at one blow. The mind of Cortez, however, was unappalled by the dangers of his situation, and he formed a plan no less extraordinary than daring. He resolved to seize Montezuma in his palace, and to carry him prisoner to the Spanish quarters. From the veneration of the Mexicans for the person of their monarch, and from their implicit obedience to his will, he hoped, by having Montezuma in his power, to obtain the supreme direction of affairs, or at least, by having so sacred a pledge in his hands, he made no doubt of being secure from aggression.

Before Cortez entered Mexico, an engagement had taken place near Vera Cruz, between the Mexicans and a detach-

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ment of the Spanish garrison of that place, and although the Spaniards were victorious, one of them happened to be taken prisoner. This unfortunate captive was immediately beheaded, and his head, after being carried in triumph to different cities, in order to convince the people that their invaders were not immortal, was at last sent to Mexico. Although Cortez had received intelligence of this affair, in his route, it had not deterred him from entering that city, but reflecting on his precarious situation, he resolved to make it a pretext for seizing the emperor. At his usual hour of visiting Montezuma, he went to the palace, accompanied by five of his principal officers, and as many trusty soldiers. Thirty chosen men followed, not in regular order, but sauntering at intervals, as if they had no other object than curiosity. Small parties were posted at proper intervals, between the Spanish quarters and the court, and the rest of the troops were under arms ready to sally out on the first alarm. Cortez with his attendants being admitted as usual, he reproached the monarch with being the author of the violent assault made on the Spaniards near Vera Cruz, by one of his officers. Montezuma, confounded at this unexpected reproach, asserted his innocence, and as a proof gave orders to bring the officer and his accomplices prisoners to Mexico. Cortez professed himself convinced of Montezuma's innocence, but told him, that to produce the same conviction on the minds of his followers, it was necessary, that he should give a proof of his confidence and attachment, by removing from his palace, and taking up his residence in the Spanish quarters, where he should be treated with the attention and respect due to so great a monarch. Montezuma earnestly, but ineffectually, remonstrated against this extraordinary proposal. He saw that Cortez was determined; and he found himself under the necessity of complying. His officers were called, and he communicated to them, his resolution of taking up his residence among his new friends. Although astonished, and afflicted, they durst not presume to question the will of their master. He was, therefore, carried in silent and sorrowful pomp, to the Span-

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ish quarters; but when it was made known to the people, that the strangers were carrying away their emperor, they broke out into the wildest transports of rage, and threatened the Spaniards with immediate destruction. But, as soon as Montezuma waved his hand, and declared that it was an act of his own choice, the multitude, accustomed to revere every intimation of the sovereign's pleasure, quietly dispersed.

Cortez, having the emperor in his power, now governed the empire in his name; and Montezuma was only the organ of his will, although he was attended as usual by his ministers; and the external aspect of the government underwent no alteration. The unfortunate monarch, however, was obliged to acknowledge himself a vassal to the king of Spain, and to accompany his professions of fealty, and homage, by a magnificent present to his new sovereign. His subjects, imitating his example, brought in liberal contributions.

Cortez, although master of the Mexican capital, and of the person of the monarch, was now threatened with a new danger. Velasques, hearing of his success, and enraged at seeing his own authority rejected, fitted out, at Cuba, an armament of eighteen vessels, having on board eighteen cavalry, eight hundred infantry, and twelve pieces of cannon. The expedition was placed under the command of Pamphilo de Narvaez, who had orders to seize Cortez, and his principal officers, to send them to him in irons, and to complete the conquest of Mexico. Cortez now saw himself in a more arduous situation than ever, being under the necessity of taking the field, not against unskilful Indians, but against an army equal in courage, and discipline, to his own—in numbers, far superior—and commanded by an officer of distinguished bravery. Having made an unsuccessful attempt to accommodate matters, by negociation, he determined to advance against his new enemy.

He left one hundred and fifty men in Mexico, under the command of Pedro de Alvaredo, an officer of determined courage and resolution. To the custody of this slender gar-

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rison he was obliged to commit the capital, and the captive monarch. With the rest of the troops he marched for Zempoalla, of which Narvaez had taken possession. A negociation was again commenced, but without success: Narvaez required, that Cortez and his followers should recognise him as governor of Mexico, in virtue of the powers which he derived from Velasques; while Cortez refused to submit to any authority which was not founded on a commission from the emperor Charles V. then king of Spain. The time employed in these negociations, gave Cortez an opportunity of corrupting the troops of Narvaez. His own forces did not exceed two hundred and fifty; yet, with this small body, he attacked that general, who had almost four times the number, and gained an easy victory, with the loss of only two soldiers; while no more than two officers, and fifteen privates, were killed on the adverse side. Cortez treated the vanquished in the most generous manner, giving them their choice, either of returning to Cuba, or of entering into his service. Most of them chose the latter; and Cortez, when he least expected such good fortune, saw no less than one thousand Spaniards ranged under his standard. With this reinforcement, he marched back to Mexico, where his presence was extremely necessary. A courier had brought him intelligence, that Alvaredo's mismanagement had excited an insurrection; and that the Spaniards were closely besieged in their quarters, and harassed with incessant attacks. The danger was so great, as not to admit of deliberation or delay; and Cortez immediately began his march. It is somewhat extraordinary, that the Mexicans did not take the precaution to break the bridges in the causeways, by which they might have enclosed Alvaredo, and have prevented the entrance of Cortez. Instead of adopting so obvious a measure, for preventing the junction of their enemies, in the heart of their capital, they suffered Cortez to enter the city, without opposition, and take possession of his former station. This apparent calm, however, was only a prelude to a violent storm. The Mexicans, who now appeared resolved on the extermination of their ene-

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mies, resumed their arms, and attacked the Spanish quarters in such formidable numbers, and with such undaunted courage, that although the artillery, pointed against their tumultuous crowds, swept down multitudes at every discharge, the impetuosity of the attack did not abate. Fresh bodies of men incessantly rushed forward to occupy the places of the slain; and all the valour of the Spaniards was barely sufficient to prevent them from forcing their way into the fortifications.

Cortez was astonished at the desperate ferocity of a people, who seemed at first to submit so patiently to a foreign yoke. He made two desperate sallies from his quarters, but, although numbers of Mexicans fell, and part of the city was burned, he gained no permanent advantage; and besides, being wounded himself, he lost twelve of his soldiers; a serious affair at that time, when in his circumstances, the life of a single Spaniard was of importance. No resource was now left, but to make use of the influence of the captive emperor, in order to quell the insurrection. Montezuma was brought in regal pomp to the battlement, and was compelled to address the people. But their fury rose above all restraint. Volleys of arrows and stones poured in upon the ramparts; and the unfortunate prince being wounded in the head by a stone, fell to the ground. The Mexicans as soon as they saw their emperor fall, were struck with sudden remorse, and fled with precipitation and horror, as if they supposed themselves pursued by the vengeance of heaven for their crime. Montezuma was carried by the Spaniards to his apartments, but being now weary of life, he tore the bandages from his wounds and obstinately refusing to take any nourishment, expired in a few days. The Spaniards endeavoured to convert him to the Christian faith, but he rejected all their solicitations with disdain. Christianity, indeed, was preached to this unfortunate prince by very unsuitable apostles, and it could scarcely be supposed that he should embrace its doctrines on the recommendation of persons, whose whole conduct

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appeared to be so diametrically in opposition to the tenets of that religion.

The death of Montezuma loosed the Mexicans from all the restraints, which their veneration for his person, and dignity, had imposed on their actions. A war of extermination was the immediate consequence, and after various attacks in which the Mexicans showed the most daring resolution, the Spaniards found it necessary to retreat from a situation, in which they must be finally overwhelmed by the immense multitudes, and incessant assaults of their enemies. This measure was, however, not effected without extreme difficulty. The Mexicans, astonished at the repeated efforts of Spanish valour, had now changed their system of hostility, and instead of renewing their attacks, had adopted the measure of breaking the causeways, and barricading the streets, in order to cut off all communication between the Spaniards and the country. A retreat from Mexico, being now a measure of absolute necessity, it was effected in the night; but not without great loss, for the Mexicans from whom their preparations could not be concealed, had not only broken the bridges, and made breaches in the causeways; but attacked them on all sides from the lake. All Mexico was in arms, and the lake was covered with canoes. The Spaniards crowded together on the narrow causeway—hemmed in on every side, and wearied with slaughter, were unable to bear up against the weight of the torrent, that poured in upon them. The confusion was universal. The tremendous sounds of the warlike instruments of the Mexicans, with the shouts of their barbarian multitudes, gave additional horror to the scene. Cortez, with part of his soldiers, broke through the enemy, but many, overwhelmed by the multitude of aggressors, were either killed on the causeway or perished in the lake; while others, whom the Mexicans had taken alive, were dragged away in triumph to be sacrificed to the god of war. In this fatal retreat, which is yet distinguished in New Spain by the name of Noche Triste, on

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the night of sorrow, not less than half of the Spaniards, with above two thousand Tlascalans were killed; many officers of distinction also perished, among whom was Velasquez de Leon, considered as the second person in the army, and in daring courage not inferior to Cortez himself. All the artillery, ammunition, and baggage were lost; and only a small portion of the treasure which they had amassed was saved.* The whole empire was now in arms, and Cortez having reviewed his shattered battalions, continued his retreat towards Tlascala, the only place where he could hope for a friendly reception. He met with no opposition till he reached the valley of Otumba, where the whole force of the Mexicans was concentrated. When the Spaniards had gained the summit of an eminence, they saw the spacious valley through which they were obliged to pass, covered with an army extended as far as the eye could reach. At the sight of this immense multitude, the Spaniards were astonished, and even the boldest were inclined to despair. But Cortez, without allowing time for their fears to gain strength from reflection, briefly reminded them that no alternative remained, but to conquer or die; and instantly led them to the charge. The Mexicans waited their approach with inflexible firmness. Notwithstanding the superiority of European discipline and arms, the Spaniards, though successful in every attack, were ready to sink under the repeated efforts of innumerable multitudes. But Cortez, observing the great standard of the empire, which was carried before the Mexican general, and recollecting to have heard that on its fate the issue of every battle depended, put himself at the head of a few of his bravest officers, and pushed forward with an impetuosity that bore down all before it, to the place where he saw it displayed. Cortez, having brought the Mexican general to the ground with a stroke of his lance, the select body of guards was broken, and the imperial standard disappeared. At this spectacle, the Mexicans were struck with a universal panic, and fled with precipitation to the mountains.

* Robertson's History of America, vol. ii. page 93.

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The day after the battle of Otumba, the Spaniards reached the territories of the Tlascalans, their allies, who being implacable enemies of the Mexican name, continued faithful to Cortez in this reverse of his fortune. Here he had an interval of rest and tranquillity, that was extremely necessary for curing the wounded and for recruiting the strength of his soldiers; exhausted as they were by a long series of hardships and fatigues. During this suspension of military operations, he recruited his battalions with one hundred and eighty adventurers, newly arrived from Spain, and the islands; and obtained possession of some artillery and ammunition, which had been sent by Velasquez for the use of the army of Narvaez, and had been seized by the officer, whom Cortez had left in command at Vera Cruz. Having received these reinforcements, he resolved to recommence the war, and attempt the reduction of Mexico. But as he knew this to be impracticable, unless he could secure the command of the lake, he gave orders to prepare in the mountains of Tlascala, materials for constructing twelve brigantines, which were to be carried thither in pieces, ready to be put together, and launched when it should be found necessary.

On the twenty-eighth of December, 1520, Cortez began his second march towards Mexico, at the head of five hundred and fifty Spanish foot, and forty horse, with ten thousand Tlascalans, and a train of nine field pieces. The Mexicans, however, were not unprepared for his reception. On the death of Montezuma, their nobility, in whom the right of electing the emperor appears to have been vested, had raised his brother, Quetlavaca, to the throne. The courage and conduct of this prince had been displayed in the direction of those attacks by which the Spaniards had been obliged to retreat from his capital; and he took the most prudent and vigorous measures for preventing their return; but, while he was arranging his plans of defence, with a degree of foresight uncommon in an aboriginal American, he died of the small-pox; a disorder unknown in that quarter of the globe, until it was introduced by the Europeans. In his stead, the Mexicans elected Guatimozin, nephew, and son-in-law of

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Montezuma, a young prince of distinguished reputation for abilities and valour. Cortez having advanced to Tezcuco, a city situated near the lake of Mexico, and about twenty miles distant from that capital, was near seeing all his vast plans of conquest defeated, by a dangerous conspiracy among his troops; many of whom, on a near view of the difficulties which they had to encounter, in attacking a city of so difficult access as Mexico, had formed the design of assassinating him and his principal officers, and of conferring the command on some other, by whom this desperate project would be relinquished. The conspiracy, however, being detected, and the mutinous spirit of the troops allayed, by the consummate prudence and firmness of the general, the preparations for the attack of Mexico were carried on with unanimity and ardour. In the space of three months, the materials for the construction of the brigantines were completed, and carried from the mountains of Tlascala to Tezcuco, on the lake of Mexico, a distance of above sixty miles, by ten thousand men, escorted by fifteen thousand Tlascalan warriors, and two hundred and fifteen Spaniards. A great number of Indians, also, were employed, during the space of two months, in widening the rivulet which ran from Tezcuco to the lake, and forming it into a navigable canal, near two miles in length. About the same time, the army received a reinforcement of two hundred Spanish soldiers, eighty horses, and two pieces of battering cannon, with a considerable supply of arms and ammunition; all which had been procured in Hispaniola, by the agents of Cortez in that island.

The brigantines were now put together and launched; and every preparation was made for the siege. The Spaniards were already posted at Tezcuco; and their first step was to take possession of Tacuba and Cuoyocan; the cities which commanded the other two causeways. This they effected, with little opposition, as the inhabitants had fled into Mexico, where the whole force of the nation was concentrated. The first effort of the Mexicans was to destroy the brigantines; but their numerous canoes were soon dis-

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persed; and the Spaniards, after a great slaughter of the enemy, were left masters of the lake. The siege having continued a whole month, during which time one furious conflict had succeeded another; and many of the Spaniards being killed, more of them wounded, and all of them ready to sink under the pressure of unremitting fatigue; Cortez, in consideration of these circumstances, resolved to make a grand effort to obtain possession of the city.

In consequence of this resolution, a general attack was made by the three causeways. Cortez himself led the division which advanced by the causeway Cuoyocan; while the two others were commanded by Sandoval, and Alvarado; two officers of distinguished bravery. The Spaniards pushed forward, with an impetuosity that bore down all opposition, and forced their way over the canals and barricadoes, into the city. Guatimozin, now seeing the Spaniards within his capital, and observing that they had neglected to fill up the great breach in the causeway of Cuoyocan, although Cortez had stationed an officer there for that purpose, commanded his troops to slacken their efforts, and to suffer the Spaniards to advance into the heart of the city, while he despatched bands of select warriors, by different routes, to intercept their retreat. On a signal given by the emperor, the priests at the principal temple struck the great drum consecrated to the god of war. No sooner did the Mexicans hear its solemn and impressive sound, calculated to inspire them with a contempt of death, and an enthusiastic ardour, than they rushed on the enemy with frantic rage. The Spaniards were obliged to retire; and, in the scene of confusion which ensued, six Mexican captains, having seized on Cortez, were carrying him off, when two of his officers rescued him, at the expense of their own lives: but not till after he had received several dangerous wounds. Above sixty Spaniards perished in this second retreat; and forty of these fell, alive, into the hands of an enemy never known to show mercy to a captive. These unfortunate men were dragged in triumph to the temple, and sacrificed to the god of war.

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After this dreadful disaster, Cortez changed his mode of attack; and, instead of attempting to become master of the city at a single stroke, contented himself with making gradual approaches. The three divisions recommenced the attack, but proceeded with great circumspection. As the Spaniards advanced along the causeways, the Indian allies repaired the breaches behind them; and as soon as they got possession of any part of the city, the houses were immediately levelled with the ground. Incredible numbers of the Mexicans fell in these conflicts, which were every day renewed. The survivors experienced all the horrors of famine, as their stores were exhausted by the multitudes that had flocked to the capital, to defend their sovereign, and the temples of their gods; and the Spaniards, with their allies, were masters of the lake, and of all the avenues that led to the city.

The invaders continuing their progress, all the three divisions of their army at last met in the great square, in the centre of the city, where they made a secure lodgment. Three-fourths of Mexico were now laid in ruins, and the remaining quarter was so hard pressed, that it could not long resist the efforts of the assailants. At this juncture, Guatimozin was taken by the brigantines on the lake, in attempting to make his escape in a canoe. As soon as the capture of the emperor was known, the resistance of the Mexicans ceased; and Cortez took possession of the small part of the city that was not destroyed. Thus terminated the siege of Mexico, after having continued seventy-five days, scarcely one of which passed without some extraordinary effort of attack or defence. The Spaniards, as may be expected, were elated with joy, by the completion of their difficult conquest, and the expectation of sharing immense spoils. But in the latter respect, they were miserably disappointed. Guatimozin foreseeing his impending fate, had caused the riches amassed by his ancestors to be thrown into the lake; and instead of becoming masters of the treasures of Montezuma, and the spoils of the temples, the conquerors could collect only a small booty amidst

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ruin and desolation. The Spaniards exclaimed loudly against their general, whom they suspected of appropriating the greatest part of the spoils to his own use, as well as against Guatimozin, whom they accused of obstinately concealing his treasures. In order to allay this ferment, Cortez consented to a deed that sullied all the glory of his former actions. He suffered the royal captive with his principal minister to be put to the rack, in order to oblige him to discover the place where his riches were concealed. The unhappy monarch bore his sufferings with all the firmness of a hero, and when his minister uttered some complaint, he asked, "Am *I* now reposing on a bed of roses." The favourite, stung with remorse, persevered in dutiful silence, and expired. Cortez ashamed of so horrid a scene, rescued the royal victim from the hands of his torturers. The unfortunate Guatimozin being some time afterwards suspected of forming a scheme to throw off the Spanish yoke, was by Cortez condemned to be hanged, together with the Caziques of Tezcuco, and Tacuba, two persons of the greatest eminence in the empire. The success of Cortez and the splendour of his conquest, procured him from the emperor Charles V. the viceroyalty of Mexico, in spite of the claim of Velasquez, and the insinuations of his other enemies.

The religion of the ancient Mexicans, was the most wild and extravagant system of idolatry, that the world has ever seen. Their worship appears to have been directed, not to a benevolent, but a malignant deity, who delighted in destruction, and whom they endeavoured to appease by horrid rites and human sacrifices. Their principal deities were thirteen in number, but they also acknowledged a variety of local divinities, who presided over the mountains, the vallies, and other parts of nature, as well as over the affairs of life; but Mexitli, the god of war, seems to have been the chief object of adoration. They had various idols, rudely formed of stone, wood, or clay, and sometimes decorated with gems and gold. Their priests were numerous, and had an almost unlimited influence over the people.

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They wore a black cotton mantle, resembling a veil, and there seems to have been an order of monks, as in the eastern countries of Asia. The principal part of the Mexican worship seems to have consisted in human sacrifices. Every captive taken in war was cruelly tortured, and immolated on the altars of the Mexican gods. The head and the heart were the portion of those sanguinary divinities; while the rest of the body was assigned to the captors, who feasted on the flesh. The number of human victims offered up to the Mexican idols, has been variously stated, and undoubtedly often exaggerated. When Herrara tells us that five thousand, nay even twenty thousand, had sometimes been sacrificed in one day, we find ourselves obliged to suspend our belief. Zummurraga, first bishop of Mexico; Gomara, and Torquemada, concur in stating the annual number of victims at twenty thousand, and the last of these writers represents them as consisting chiefly of children. Bartholemew de las Casas, the avowed advocate of the Americans, on the contrary, reduces the number to fifty or one hundred. The account given by Barthol Dias, however, appears the most probable. This author informs us, that, from an enquiry set on foot by the Franciscan friars immediately after the conquest, the number of human victims annually sacrificed in Mexico, appeared to be about two thousand five hundred; a number sufficient to make humanity shudder. The idolatrous systems of the ancient Egyptians, the Greeks, the Romans, and the modern Orientals, must be considered as innocent superstitions in comparison with those horrid oblations. The Mexican religion was founded solely on fear, commanding rigid fasts, severe penances, voluntary wounds, or tortures; and the temples were decorated with the figures of destructive animals. In fine, the whole apparatus of this barbarous religion, was calculated to inspire terror. In no other part of the world does the human mind appear to have been so dreadfully disordered by terrific ideas.

The ancient government of Mexico was monarchical, and hereditary in the royal family, although the succession

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was not strictly confined to lineal descent; as a brother or nephew of the deceased prince was sometimes preferred to his sons. There were several royal councils and classes of nobility, which were principally hereditary; and despotism seems to have been first introduced by the celebrated Montezuma. Land, however, was not supposed to belong to the monarch, as in China and some other Oriental countries, but was alienable by the proprietors. As writing was unknown, there was no code of laws, all litigated cases being determined by traditional rules and established customs.

If the Mexican armies were so numerous as they have been represented by the Spaniards, it seems that the whole effective population, according to the general custom of remote antiquity, was in cases of emergency brought into the field. Their arms and tactics were, indeed, extremely rude. Nothing can be said with any appearance of precision, concerning the national revenue.

From the relations of the Spanish writers, the population of Mexico at the time of the conquest, would appear to have been immense. These accounts, however, were undoubtedly exaggerated. The Spanish conquerors were disposed to swell the importance of their own exploits, and the Spanish authors amplified and embellished all their narrations. Every story relating to these new and singular countries, was greedily swallowed in Spain, and soon gained implicit credit throughout Europe.

In the arts of civilized life, the Mexicans were certainly far inferior to the Peruvians. Their symbolical paintings exhibited brilliant colours, but the designs were extremely rude. Their edifices were meanly built of turf and stone, and generally thatched with reeds. Even the great temple of Mexico, was only a square mound of earth, partly faced with stone. The very ruins of the Mexican buildings have perished, while the solid structures of the Peruvians yet remain.

The Mexicans cultivated maize, and various kinds of vegetables, but their agriculture was rude. Their dress was a loose cloak, and a sash girt round the naked waist.

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Their wars were constant and sanguinary; a circumstance which concurred with their religion in tincturing their manners with ferocity; as their principal warriors used to dance through the streets, covered with the skins of their unfortunate captives. The dedication of their temples was solemnized by the destruction of human life. We are told by Clavigero, that no less than twelve thousand victims were sacrificed on two of these occasions.* On the death of a chief, a great number of his attendants were immolated. In fine, superstition and cruelty were the predominant features in the Mexican character.

NEW MEXICO.

This extensive territory, which the Spaniards did not begin to explore till after the middle of the sixteenth century, is yet, in a great measure unknown, and its northern boundaries are still undetermined. Several considerable rivers pervade this extensive region; of which, some discharge themselves into the Gulf of Mexico, and others into that of California. The largest of these rivers is the Rio Bravo, which empties itself into the Gulf of Mexico, nearly in the latitude of twenty-six degrees, north; but its origin and its course, which appears to be scarcely less than twelve hundred miles, have not been ascertained. The Spaniards did not completely subdue this country till 1771, after a war of six years with the savages. During their marches, they discovered at Cineguilla, in the province of Sonora, that singular plain of forty-two miles in extent, in which, vast quantities of pure gold are found in large lumps, at the depth of only about sixteen inches. Before the end of the year 1771, above two thousand persons, attracted by this brilliant prospect of wealth, were settled at Cineguilla, which must in all probability become an opulent and populous colony. Other rich mines have since been found in the provinces of Sonora and Cinaola; and the mineralogy

* History of Mexico, vol. i. p. 232.

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of this newly acquired territory, promises to equal, if not to exceed in importance, that of Mexico and Peru. The extensive peninsula of California, which may be considered as an appendage to New Mexico, was discovered by Cortez, in 1536; but amidst the vast extent of acquisition, it was afterwards neglected, and long regarded as an island. It was at length explored by the Jesuits, who acquired as complete a dominion here as they did in Paraguay. On their expulsion in 1766, it was found to contain several mines, with a valuable pearl fishery on the coast. The soil is said to be extremely fertile, and the climate mild, but foggy.

MEXICO, OR NEW SPAIN.

The government of Mexico is vested in a viceroy, who is changed every three years. The viceroyalty is the office of the greatest power, and trust, that the crown of Spain has at its disposal, and probably the most lucrative employ that is held by any subject in the world. Mexico is the centre of the Spanish power in America. The jealousy of that country, in regard to her colonies, renders it extremely difficult to acquire any just ideas concerning them. In regard to commerce, Mexico, from its central situation with respect to South America, the Philippine islands, and Europe, possesses great advantages, and is, undoubtedly, the most opulent of all the Spanish provinces. It yields a revenue of about one million of pounds sterling to the crown of Spain, and is, in every point of view, the most important part of the Spanish empire in America.

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SOUTH AMERICA,

Extends from about twelve degrees north, to fifty-four degrees, south latitude, and from about thirty-four degrees, thirty minutes, to about eighty degrees, west longitude. Its greatest length, from north to south, may, therefore, be computed at three thousand nine hundred and sixty, and its greatest breadth at two thousand eight hundred and eighty geographical miles. Many parts of the interior yet remain unexplored; and it is only at a very recent period, that any tolerable map of South America has been given to the public. This quarter of America is distinguished by the largest rivers, and the highest mountains, on the face of the globe. The principal river is that of the Amazons, so called from a female tribe, inured to arms, reported to have been discovered on its banks by the first navigators. The story is fabulous, and has, probably, originated in fiction, or mistake. The Amazon river is said by geographers, to be the largest in the world; and the estimate is undoubtedly just, when breadth, as well as length, is considered. Its source is not yet exactly ascertained; as two large rivers, the Maranon, and the Ucaial, join in composing this vast body of water. The whole length of its course, before it falls into the Atlantic, is computed to be about three thousand three hundred miles. The Maranon passes through the Andes, at a place called Pongo, remarkable for its sublime and magnificent scenery. The river, which is there contracted from a breadth of five hundred, to one of fifty yards, is confined within its two parallel walls of almost perpendicular rock. After the junction of the Ucaial and Maranon, their united stream receives from the north and south, many other large rivers; which, being likewise composed of a number of inferior streams, water a vast extent of country. The depth is, in many places, more than one hundred fathoms; and the swell of the tide is perceptible at the distance of six hundred miles from the sea.

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The Rio de la Plata, is, in magnitude and extent of course, the second river in South America. It is formed by the united waters of the Paraguay, the Parana, the Pilcomayo, and the Urucuay; the two former of which are the principal streams. The Rio de la Plata is interspersed with numerous islands. The breadth of the æstuary is such, that land cannot be discovered on either side, from a ship in the middle of the stream; and vessels ascend near one thousand two hundred miles from the sea.

The third great river of South America, is the Oroonoko, which rises in latitude five degrees, ten minutes, north. In its course, which is exceedingly tortuous, it receives many large rivers. One striking peculiarity is observable in regard to the Maranon, or river of Amazons, and the Oroonoko. The streams issuing from the lake of Parima, form three different communications between these immense rivers; and that lake may be regarded as the centre of this singular connexion. It is easy to conceive what great advantages those countries may, at some future period, derive from this remarkable inland navigation, which nature has prepared, and art may exceedingly improve.

The mountains of South America, may be ranked among the most sublime objects of nature. They are the loftiest on the face of the globe, and are intermixed with the most sublime and terrific volcanoes. The immense chain of the Andes extends from the southern, almost to the northern extremity of this continent, at the medial distance of about one hundred miles from the western coast; the whole length, allowing for the windings, being not less than four thousand five hundred miles. The highest summits are those of Peru, near the equator. Chimborazo, the most elevated summit of the Andes, was computed by the French mathematicians to be twenty thousand, two hundred and eighty feet above the level of the sea. The next in elevation is supposed to be Cotopashi, a tremendous voleano, which is said to eject stones of eight or nine feet diameter, to the distance of more than nine miles. The height of Cotopashi, is estimated at about eighteen thousand six hun-

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dred feet. It is situated about twenty-five miles to the south-east of Quito. The mountain of Sanguay, the summit of which is covered with perpetual snow, is a constant volcano; and its explosions are sometimes so tremendous, as to be heard at the distance of one hundred and twenty miles. Besides the Andes, the chief of the South American mountains, there are, according to Humboldt, three remarkable ranges, lying in a direction from west to east, nearly parallel to the equator. In Terra Firma, Brazil, and some other parts of this vast continent, are several ranges of mountains, which are little known, and do not, indeed, appear very considerable. The whole interior of South America, comprising the vast countries watered by the Rio de la Plata, the river of Amazons, the Oroonoko, and all their tributary streams, is an immense plain, of which many extensive districts are annually inundated by their redundant waters.

The most considerable lake yet known, on this division of the new continent, is that of Titicaca, in Peru, which is of an oval figure, and about two hundred and forty miles in circuit. There are, however, many temporary lakes of great extent, which exist only during the annual inundations of the great rivers, that deluge large tracts of country.

One of the chief characteristics, which distinguish America from the old continent, is the superior degree of cold that reigns in the same parallels. Canada, in the temperate latitudes of France, has a climate as rigorous as that of Russia; and the island, or rather collection of islands, known by the name of Terra del Fuego, in the latitude of fifty-five degrees south, is exposed to the almost perpetual winter of Greenland. This predominancy of cold in the new, above what is perceived in the old continent, may be accounted for, in a great measure, by the superabundance of wood, and the want of cultivation and drainage. Except the settlements of Cayenne and Surinam, and the countries yet unconqured, the whole of this vast continent, so famed for the richness of its mineralogy, is subject to Spain and Portugal.

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SPANISH DOMINIONS.

The Spanish Empire in South America, extends, according to their geographers, the whole length of that continent; but in a more restricted sense, its actual boundary may be fixed at the forty-fourth degree of south latitude. In this view, its length may be computed at three thousand three hundred and sixty geographical miles, on a medial breadth of at least nine hundred of the same measure. The boundaries, except on the coasts, are doubtful; and towards the unconquered countries, the frontier can be fixed only at the point, to which the Spaniards may think it proper to extend their settlements.

Terra Firma, comprising the greatest part of the isthmus of Darien, extends from twelve degrees north latitude, to the equator. The country is extremely mountainous, and rugged. The mountainous tracts, however, are interspersed with extensive plains of extraordinary fertility, but subject to inundations in the seasons of the tropical rains. Peru, stretching along the coast of the Pacific Ocean, from the equator to twenty-five degrees south latitude, consists for the most part of an elevated plain, presenting a high, bold coast. In Chili, as well as in Peru, the chain of the Andes runs at about the medial distance of one hundred miles from the coast. Chili, extending from the extremity of Peru in twenty-five degrees to forty-five degrees south latitude, is the southernmost of the Spanish provinces. The vast country of Paraguay, extending from twelve degrees, to thirty-seven degrees south latitude, and from fifty degrees to seventy-five degrees, west longitude, is supposed to contain about one million square miles. It is an immense plain, so uniformly level, as not to be interrupted by the least eminence, for several hundreds of miles in every direction, and in many parts, exposed to annual inundations from the Parana, the Paraguay, and their tributary rivers. This vast level is of an extraordinary fertility, but contrary to the general nature of America, it is almost destitute of wood, except a few scattered palms, and other trees, and

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presents only a uniform expanse of long savannas, covered with the most luxuriant meadows and pasturage.

The mineralogy of the Spanish dominions in South America, is universally celebrated as the richest in the world; and is superior, not only to that of Brazil, but even to that of Mexico. The South American possessions of Spain, are chiefly famed for silver; but in many districts, gold also abounds. Many parts of Terra Firma, especially in the districts of Darien, and Popayan, abound in the finest gold. But the mines of Darien were lost in a revolt of the natives. Chili also has several mines of that metal. The celebrated mountain of Potosi, in Peru, has been long considered as an inexhaustible fountain of silver. This mountain, which rises in a conical form, is about twenty miles in circumference. It is perforated by more than three hundred shafts, and its surface presents neither trees nor herbage, all vegetation being blasted by the numerous furnaces. The mine was accidentally discovered in 1545, by a Peruvian named Hualpa, who in pursuing a Chamois pulled up a bush on the side of the mountain, when, to his astonishment, the breach made in the surface laid open this immense vein of silver, the richest that the world has ever yet afforded. The provinces of Chili, and Buenos Ayres, have mines of silver as well as of gold. Helm enumerates in the viceroyalty of Buenos Ayres, thirty mines of gold, twenty-seven of silver, seven of copper, seven of lead, and two of tin. It may here be observed, that silver mines are, in general, far more productive than those of gold. The former metal is in many places found in considerable masses, while the latter seems sparingly scattered by the hand of nature. With the single exception of the noted plain of Cineguilla in North America, there has hitherto been no instance of a gold mine eminently rich. No one has yet been found, that could bear any comparison in value with the celebrated silver mine of Potosi. The valuable mine of quicksilver, a little to the south-east of Lima, was discovered in 1567. In possessing a mine of this mineral, indispensable in the process of amalgamating gold and

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silver, Peru has a great advantage over Mexico, which is supplied with quicksilver from Spain. Platina, a singular species of metal, valued by some above gold, is found in the mines of New Granada; and tin in those of Chyanza and Paria. Several parts of South America produce lead and copper; but the colonies are chiefly supplied with the latter, from the mines of Cuba. These countries also produce a variety of useful and curious fossils and minerals, as the inca stone, and the gallinazo, both used as mirrors, sulphur, bitumen, vitriol, and copperas. There are also some precious stones, especially emeralds, which are esteemed the best in the world, since the emerald mines of Egypt have been neglected and lost. The chief modern mines of Peruvian emeralds are near Bogota.

A minute examination of the soil of regions so extensive, would lead to an endless prolixity. It is sufficient here to observe, that in the mountainous parts, and in some sandy plains, it is barren; in the level country, and the vallies, it is generally fertile, and the vegetation luxuriant.

Terra Firma, especially in the northern division, is excessively hot. The greatest heat ever felt at Paris, is said to be the constant temperature of Carthagena. The summer, or dry season, extends from the beginning of December to the end of April. The rest of the year is the rainy season or winter. During this long period of six months, the rains descend in such abundance, as, apparently, to threaten a general deluge. All the level parts of the country are, in consequence, almost continually flooded; and the combination of heat and moisture impregnates the air with so great a quantity of mephitic vapour, as to render the atmosphere in most places, but especially about Popayan, and Porto Bello, extremely unwholesome.

The climate of Peru is exceedingly various, and distinguished by some remarkable characteristics. The high ridges of the Andes, covered with eternal snows, constitute the dreary reign of perpetual winter. In the lower mountainous tracts, on the western side of this immense chain, the dry season from May to November, is often ex-

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tremely cold; and the rest of the year is rainy. At Quito, which is situated on a plain of remarkable elevation, between two ridges of the Andes, the rains are almost continual from September to May, and frequent during the rest of the year, which constitutes the summer. The plains of Peru, lying between the upland country and the Pacific Ocean, are totally exempt from rains, and receive no other moisture than that which descends in copious dews. From the Guyaquil to the deserts of Atacama, a space of one thousand two hundred miles in length, and from sixty to ninety in breadth, hardly any rain ever falls. Thunder and storms are unknown. Peru, though situated in the torrid zone, enjoys a temperate and salubrious climate, greatly different from that of other tropical countries. The peculiar characteristics of the Peruvian climate, to the distance of about sixty or eighty miles from the coast, are the total absence of rain, and the unfrequency of sunshine.

The climate of Chili, in a great measure, resembles that of Peru: dryness being one of its chief characteristics. Chili, however, is considerably colder than the latter country; and the climate is, in general, extremely pleasant and healthful. The extensive province of Paraguay, although uniformly level, and exposed to annual inundations, being destitute of woods, is said to enjoy a serene atmosphere and salubrious climate. From the purity of the air, the town of Buenos Ayres derives its name; and the waters of the Rio de la Plata, on which it is situated, are both sweet and wholesome.

From the isthmus of Darien, in twelve degrees north, to the southernmost extremity of Chili, in forty-four degrees south latitude, all the vegetable products of the tropical regions and of the temperate zones, would, undoubtedly, prosper under the fostering hand of agriculture. But the mines have attracted the principal attention of the colonists, who have paid little regard to the cultivation of a soil, mostly fertile and productive. The coasts of Terra Firma are, generally, a barren sand; but many parts of the inland country display the most luxuriant vegetation. The perpe-

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tual verdure of the woods, and the exuberant crops of grass on the plains, form a rich contrast with the towering height of the mountains. Among the most remarkable of the trees, are the caobo, the balsam, and the cedar; the last of which often acquires an extraordinary size. One of the most singular and interesting productions of Peru is the cinchona, from which that valuable drug, the Peruvian bark, is prepared. No less than twenty-four species of pepper, and five or six of capsicum, are reckoned among the native productions of that country. The provinces on the Rio de la Plata are remarkable for the luxuriant pasturage that covers their extensive plains.

The most distinguishing and important circumstance in the zoology of South America, is the amazing number of horses and horned cattle, in several parts of the Spanish territories; but especially in the provinces adjacent to the Paraguay, the Parana, and the Rio de la Plata. It is well known, that neither horses nor horned cattle existed in any part of the new continent, previous to its discovery by the Spaniards; and, consequently, the surprising herds with which the country is now overspread, have multiplied from a few that were carried over and turned loose by the first settlers. They are now so numerous, that they are hunted for the sake of their hides. Mules being highly useful in the mountainous countries, are bred in great numbers in the plains of Paraguay, from whence about eighty thousand are said to be annually sent to Peru. Flocks of European sheep, also, are numerous. Dogs, which, like the other domestic animals of the old continent, were originally unknown in America, having been introduced by the Spaniards, have multiplied in the same manner as the horses and cattle, and now rove about the country. The wild animals of South America, are both numerous and of various kinds; but the zoology, as well as the botany of those regions, is very imperfectly known; and some late discoveries confute the theory of the celebrated Buffon, concerning the universal inferiority of the American animals, when compared with those of the old continent. The

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tigers of Paraguay exceed those of Africa, in size and strength, and seem to equal them, at least, in ferocity. Of American birds, the most remarkable is the condor, which seems to be a species of vulture. It is described by naturalists as the largest and most ferocious of the feathered race. It is regarded as peculiar to South America, and seems to be the most common in Peru.

The natural curiosities are both grand and numerous. The towering Andes, with their terrific volcanoes, may be ranked among the most sublime features of nature. The cataract of Bogota, in New Granada, is said to have a perpendicular fall of more than four hundred yards; which, if the fact be correctly stated, surpasses every thing of the kind yet known in any other part of the world. The interior of South America has been as yet little explored. Whenever it shall be more completely known, its mountainous tracts will be found variegated with numerous scenes of sublimity, now lost to scientific observation. Like the rest of the new continent, the countries now under consideration can boast of no remains of antiquity. Few monuments of Peruvian art, now exist, to attest the former civilization and ingenuity of that people.

The capitals of the three viceroyalties or grand divisions, are Lima, Buenos Ayres, and Santa Fe de Bogota. Of these, however, Lima is deservedly esteemed the chief, and generally considered as the metropolis of the whole Spanish empire in South America. This city is situated about six miles from the sea, on the small river Rimac. The houses are slightly built, as the mildness of the climate, and the want of rain, render substantial buildings unnecessary; and the tremendous earthquakes which frequently happen, have proved them to be unsafe. The churches are richly adorned with a profusion of gold and silver; and every thing bears the appearance of opulence. The commerce of Lima is extensive, and its merchants are rich. The population is computed at about fifty-four thousand. Callao, on a bay of the sea, at the distance of little more than sixty

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miles from the city, is the seaport at which the trade of Lima is conducted.

Of Santa Fe de Bogota, the capital of the viceroyalty of New Granada, very little is known, except that it is a place of considerable wealth and population.

Next to these capitals, the chief towns are Potosi, Quito, and Cuzco, in Peru. Potosi is grown rich and populous, through its neighbourhood to the mines. It is the largest and most populous town in all South America. Quito is in this respect little inferior to Lima, being supposed to contain about fifty thousand inhabitants. Being an inland city, and without any mines in its neighbourhood, its chief trade consists in its manufactures of various coarse articles of linen, cotton, and woollen, with which it supplies the home consumption of a great part of Peru. Cuzco, the ancient capital of the Peruvian monarchy, is in extent nearly equal to Lima; and its population is also considerable.

The other principal cities are Carthagena, which has an excellent harbour, strong fortifications, a flourishing trade, and about twenty-five thousand inhabitants; Cuenz, the population of which is about twenty-six thousand; Guyaquil, and Riobamba, each of which has about eighteen thousand inhabitants. St. Jago de Chili is also a pleasant and elegant town, of considerable extent and population. Panama is the point of commercial communication between the northern and southern colonies, and consequently between Peru and Spain.

Most of the islands of any importance contiguous to the coast of South America, are claimed by Spain; but none of them are very considerable, and most of them are neglected. In a brief enumeration, beginning with those in the Pacific Ocean, it will be sufficient to mention the most considerable, and those that are best known. Chiloe, the principal of these, is in the bay of Chonos, and is about one hundred and forty miles in length, by about thirty in breadth. In the Gulf of the Holy Trinity, is the island of St. Martin, on which are some Spanish settlements of little

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importance. The pleasant and healthful island of Juan Fernandez, appears to be uninhabited; but it is famous for being during several years, the solitary abode of Alexander Selkirk, a Scotchman, who was wrecked on its coast, and whose singular adventure served, in the hands of Daniel De Foe, as the basis of the celebrated romance of Robinson Crusoe. It is mentioned in the voyage of lord Anson, who found it an excellent place of refreshment for his men, when suffering extremely from the scurvy. Terra del Fuego, at the southern extremity of the South American continent, is generally considered as one island, but is in reality, an assemblage of no fewer than eleven, separated by narrow straits. This miserable region is entirely left to the natives, who are of a middle stature, with broad, flat faces, and use for clothing the skins of seals. Fish, especially shell fish, appears to be their only food, and they live in villages, consisting of miserable huts of a conical form. To the north-east of Terra del Fuego, and nearly opposite to the straits of Magellan, are the Falkland islands, in fifty-two degrees, south latitude. These islands were discovered by sir Richard Hawkins, so early as the year 1594. Being of little value, however, they were long neglected. But in 1764, commodore Byron was sent to take possession of them, in virtue of the British claim, and a small settlement was formed at a place called Port Egmont, of which the English were, in 1770, dispossessed by the Spaniards, and the islands were soon after ceded to Spain.

To the south-east of the Falkland islands, is another island of considerable extent, discovered in 1675, by La Roche, and in 1775, named Georgia, by captain Cook. It may be described in a few words, by calling it a land of ice and snow. Further to the south-east, are other islands, still more dreary, being the throne of perpetual winter. Of the few islands on the eastern coast of South America, that of Trinidada may be reckoned the chief. On the northern shore, the most celebrated is the island of Cayenne.

The conquests of Mexico and Peru, are the most striking events in the history of the new world, previous to the es-

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tablishment of the United States. According to the tradition of the Peruvians, their monarchy had existed during the reigns of eleven successive sovereigns, previous to the time of the Spanish invasion, and the twelfth was then on the throne. They do not appear to have had any regular chronology; but from the common calculations of reigns, their empire could scarcely have lasted more than three centuries. Their traditional history may be comprised in a few pages. Peru was originally possessed by numerous savage tribes, strangers to every species of cultivation and industry. From time immemorial, they had struggled with all the inconveniences of this kind of life, without any prospect of amelioration or any effort towards improvement. At last there appeared on the banks of the lake Titicaca, a man and woman of majestic appearance, and clothed in decent garments, such as were unknown to the savage Peruvians. They declared themselves to be the children of the Sun, sent by their beneficent parent, to instruct and civilize the human race. Their exhortations being enforced by a reverence for the Divinity, in whose name they were supposed to speak, many of the savage tribes united themselves together under their direction, and receiving their commands as celestial injunctions, followed them to Cuzco, and laid the foundation of that city.

Manco Capac and his wife, whom the Peruvians call Mamma Ocella, first instructed those savages in agriculture and other arts necessary to the comfortable existence of the human species. Their next step was to institute such a system of government and laws, as might secure their own authority, and the happiness of their subjects. The Peruvian empire was at first of small extent, its territory extending only eight leagues from Cuzco. It was more extensive, however, than that of Rome, under the first of her kings; and within its narrow precincts, Manco Capac exercised an absolute and uncontrouled authority. Many of the neighbouring tribes submitted to his government; to that of his successors, others were reduced by force; and the empire of the Incas was in this manner gradually en-

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larged. Huanca Capac, the twelfth in succession from the founder of the state, reduced the province of Quito, and by that important conquest almost doubled the extent of the Peruvian dominions.

Notwithstanding the obscurity of this traditional account, it is easy to perceive that Manco Capac was one of those extraordinary men, whose superior genius enables them to gain an ascendency over others, to civilize barbarous tribes, and lay the foundation of empires. The worship of the sun, the most conspicuous and the most glorious object, in the whole system of nature, was not uncommon in many Pagan nations, who were unenlightened by science; and it appears that, from time immemorial, the original inhabitants of Peru, had been accustomed to pay divine honours to that splendid luminary, which they considered as the author of the seasons, and the visible ruler of the heavens. On this established opinion, Manco Capac founded his mission, and made it the basis of his authority. He deceived an ignorant people; but the illusion was no less conducive to their happiness, than to his own aggrandizement. His laws were equitable and humane; his government was beneficent; and he introduced among his subjects a greater degree of civilization than existed in any other part of the vast continent of America. The laws of this extraordinary person were far more beneficent than those of Lycurgus, and if we were better acquainted with the particulars of his history, there is reason to believe, that, circumstances being considered, he might justly be ranked with Solon and Numa.

From the time that Nugnez de Balboa, had discovered the Pacific Ocean, and some obscure hints had been received, relative to the extensive and opulent country of Peru, the eyes of the Spanish adventurers were turned towards that quarter. Among these, were three persons settled in Panama, who undertook at their own expense and risk, this daring and dangerous enterprise. These were Francis Pizarro, Diego Almagro, and Hernando Luquez, all of them persons of the lowest extraction. Pizarro had

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been employed in keeping hogs before he enlisted for a soldier; and Almagro was originally a foundling: but both were men of dauntless courage, trained up to war from their youth, and accustomed to dangers and difficulties. Luquez was a priest and schoolmaster, and his province was to remain at Panama, to raise recruits, collect warlike stores, provisions, &c.

On the fourteenth of November, 1524, Pizarro set sail from Panama, with only one small vessel and one hundred and eighty-two men. He touched at several places on the coast; but his men being distressed with famine, fatigue, and sickness, he was obliged to retire to Chuchama, where he expected to meet Almagro with a supply of provisions and troops from Panama. Almagro had, indeed, already arrived at that port, but not finding Pizarro, he had sailed to a different part of the coast—encountered the same difficulties and dangers as his colleague, and even lost an eye in a sharp conflict with the natives. Chance, however, at last brought them together, and they agreed that Almagro should return to Panama for fresh supplies. But the governor endeavoured by all the means in his power to thwart the expedition; and Pizarro was at last obliged to return, after having landed at Tumbez, a place of some note, where he obtained such a glimpse of the opulence of Peru, as determined him to make fresh preparations for prosecuting his enterprise. He arrived at Panama, nearly three years after his first setting out, and so great had been the mortality among his men, that out of his small number of one hundred and eighty-two, he lost in less than nine months no fewer than one hundred and thirty, by sickness and hardships, few having fallen by the sword.

The next step of Pizarro was to cross the Atlantic, and procure a commission from the court of Spain. In this object he succeeded so well, as to procure from the emperor, Charles V. the commission of captain general, and governor of the countries which he should conquer. For Hernando Luquez, he obtained an ecclesiastical preferment: but the interests of Almagro being neglected, a difference ensued

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between them. A reconciliation, however, was effected through the mediation of Luquez, after which the preparations for another expedition were commenced. But with the utmost efforts of their united fortunes and interest, the whole armament which they were able to fit out, consisted only of three small vessels, and one hundred and eighty soldiers, thirty-six of whom were horsemen. With this inconsiderable force, Pizarro landed in Peru, and having surprised a town in the province of Coaque, he had the good fortune to find vessels and ornaments of gold and silver, amounting to the value of thirty thousand pesos, with such a quantity of other booty, as dispelled all the doubts of the adventurers, and inspired them with the most sanguine hopes. He immediately despatched one of his ships to Panama, with a large remittance to Almagro, and another to Nicaragua, for the purpose of alluring adventurers and procuring supplies. This judicious step soon brought from Nicaragua two different bodies of troops, of about thirty men each, who, small as their numbers seem, were in his circumstances an invaluable accession to his force.

Had the Spaniards been able to penetrate into Peru in their first expedition, they would probably have met with a formidable resistance. Huanca Capac, the twelfth of the Incas, was then seated on the throne, and the Peruvians were united under a monarch equally revered and beloved. The state of affairs was now changed. The blood of the Incas had always been held sacred, and had never been contaminated by mixing with any other race. But Huanca Capac, after his conquest of Quito, had, in order to confirm his sovereignty over that province, married the daughter and heiress of the vanquished prince. By her he had a son, named Atahualpa, whom, at his death, in 1529, he appointed his successor in the kingdom of Quito, leaving the rest of his dominions to his other son, Huascar, whose mother was of the royal race of the Incas. This arrangement of the succession, produced a civil war between the two brothers. Atahualpa was the conqueror, and made a barbarous use of his victory. Conscious of the defect in his own title to the

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crown of Peru, he attempted to exterminate the royal race, by putting to death all the children of the Sun, descended from Manco Capac. Those of them he could seize by force, or by stratagem, became victims to his cruel policy; but Huascar, who had been taken prisoner in battle, was preserved for some time, that, by issuing orders in his name, the usurper might more easily establish his authority.

When Pizarro first landed in Peru, the civil war between the two brothers was not terminated; and neither of the competitors paid any attention to the operations of an enemy, whose number appeared to them too inconsiderable to excite alarm. By this coincidence of events, the Spaniards penetrated to the centre of Peru, without opposition, and then met with only a feeble resistance from a disunited and disaffected people. Pizarro immediately advanced towards Caxamarca, a town near which Atahualpa was encamped. On the road he was met by an officer, bearing a valuable present from the Inca, with an offer of peace and alliance. Pizarro, following the example of Cortez, in Mexico, announced himself as the ambassador of a powerful monarch, who courted the friendship of the Inca; and declared that he was advancing to offer him his assistance against all those who should dispute his title to the crown. On entering Caxamarca, Pizarro took possession of a strong post in the town, and sent a message to Atahualpa, whose camp was about a mile distant from that place. The messengers were instructed to confirm his former declaration of pacific intentions, and to request an interview with the Inca, for the purpose of explaining the motives that induced him to visit his country. On their arrival at the Peruvian camp, they were treated with the most respectful hospitality, and the Inca promised to visit the Spanish commander the next day at his quarters. The vast profusion of wealth which they observed in the Inca's camp, struck the messengers with astonishment. On their return to Caxamarca, they gave such a description of it to their countrymen, as excited at once their wonder and avarice.

From his own observation of American manners, and

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ideas, as well as from the advantages which Cortez had derived from seizing Montezuma, Pizarro knew of what consequence it would be to have the Inca in his power; and immediately made his arrangements for seizing on his person, at the approaching interview. His troops were disposed in the most advantageous manner, and kept in readiness for action. The next day Atahualpa appeared in all the pomp of barbarous magnificence, with several hundreds of attendants, and seated on a throne almost covered with gold and silver, carried on the shoulders of his principal officers. Several bands of singers and dancers accompanied the procession, and the plain was covered with his troops, amounting to about thirty thousand in number. The interview was conducted in an extraordinary manner on the part of the Spaniards. As the Inca drew near to their quarter, Father Valverde, chaplain to the expedition, advanced with a crucifix in one hand, and a breviary in the other, and began a long discourse, explaining to him the mysteries of the Christian religion, requiring him to embrace its doctrines, and acknowledge the king of Spain as his sovereign. This extraordinary harangue, confused rather than explained by an unskilful interpreter, filled the Inca with surprise and indignation. Of his own dominions he declared himself the absolute master; and with regard to religious matters, he expressed a wish to know where the Spaniards had learned such singular doctrines. "In this book," answered Valverde, reaching to him his breviary. The Inca opened it with eager curiosity, and turning over the leaves, lifted it to his ear, and listened with serious attention. "This," said he, "is silent—it tells me nothing," and threw it with disdain on the ground. The Monk immediately cried out, "To arms, Christians, to arms; the word of God is insulted." Pizarro at that instant gave the signal of attack. The martial music struck up, the cannon and musquetry began to fire, and both horse and foot made a furious charge. It is easier to conceive than describe the amazement and consternation of the Peruvians, at an attack which they so little expected. Dismayed at the destructive

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effects of the fire arms, and the irresistible charge of the cavalry, they fled in the utmost confusion. Pizarro, at the head of a chosen band, rushed forward and seized the Inca. About four thousand Peruvians fell in this fatal rencounter. Not a single Spaniard was either killed or wounded, except Pizarro himself, who received a slight wound in his hand. The conduct of their countrymen in this transaction is condemed by all the Spanish historians.

The plunder of the field and camp was rich beyond any idea which the Spaniards had yet formed of the wealth of Peru, and they passed the night in the extravagant exultation natural to indigent adventurers, on so great and so sudden an acquisition of wealth. The captive monarch in the meanwhile, soon discovered the ruling passion of the invaders, and hoped by gratifying their avarice to regain his liberty. The room in which he was confined was twenty-two feet in length, by sixteen in breadth, and he offered to fill it as high as he could reach, with vessels of gold. Pizarro closed eagerly with the proposal, and the Inca immediately took measures for fulfilling his part of the agreement, and sent messengers to Cuzco, Quito, and other places, to collect the gold amassed in the temples, and in the palaces of the Incas. At the same time, apprehending that his brother Huascar, who was kept in confinement, might engage the Spaniards to espouse his cause, he despatched private orders for his execution, and these, like his other commands, were punctually obeyed.

Pizarro, in his compact with Atahualpa, appears to have had no other intention than that of inducing him to collect, by his authority, the whole wealth of his kingdom. Among various circumstances which concurred to accelerate the catastrophe of the unfortunate Inca, one of a singlar nature is related by the Spanish historians. Of all the European arts, that which he most admired was the use of letters; but he was uncertain whether it was a natural or an acquired talent. In order to determine the point, he desired one of the soldiers to write the name of God, and then showed it to others, of whom several could read. At length he exhi-

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bited it to Pizarro, who, never having learned to read, was obliged to confess his ignorance. From that moment, Atahualpa regarded the commander in chief as a mean person, less instructed than many of his soldiers; and he had not the address to conceal his sentiments on the subject. This mortified the pride of Pizarro, and operated as an additional motive to induce him to hasten the destruction of the Inca. It was, however, deemed requisite to give a legal appearance to the transaction. A court of justice was formed: Pizarro and Almagro sat as judges. Before this singular tribunal, Atahualpa was accused of usurping the throne, of putting his brother, and lawful sovereign, to death, and of various other crimes. To judges predetermined to condemn, slight evidence was sufficient. The unfortunate prince was convicted, and sentenced to be burnt alive. Astonished at his sentence, he used every means to avert his fate: he even consented to be baptized; but his enemies were bent on his destruction. All he could obtain, was a mitigation of punishment; and, instead of being burnt, he was strangled. Among those profligate adventurers, there were some who not only remonstrated, but protested against this barbarous proceeding; but their endeavours were ineffectual, and the more violent faction prevailed.

The treasure collected for the ransom of the Inca, had been immediately divided among the soldiers; and there is no example in history of so sudden an acquisition of wealth by military adventure. No less than eight thousand pesos, a sum at that time equivalent to considerably more than as many pounds sterling in the present century, fell to the share of each horseman; and half as much to each foot soldier, after the king's fifth had been deducted, and Pizarro, with the other officers, had received shares proportioned to their rank. This abundance of wealth, flowing all at once upon indigent adventurers, excited, in many of them, a desire of retiring, to spend the rest of their days in opulence and ease. Pizarro readily gratified their wish, sensible that the sight of riches, so rapidly acquired, would allure fresh

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adventurers. He could not, indeed, have sent out better recruiting officers. No sooner were they arrived at Panama, where they displayed their wealth to the view of their astonished countrymen, than fame spread abroad, with exaggeration, the account of their success. The spirit of adventure was excited beyond all former example; and the governors of several provinces found great difficulty in restraining the colonists from abandoning their possessions, to go in quest of the inexhaustible treasures of Peru. In spite of every check, however, so many fresh adventurers resorted to the standard of Pizarro, that he began his march to Cuzco at the head of five hundred men, after leaving a considerable garrison in the fort of St. Michael. In his march, he was feebly opposed by two bodies of Peruvians; but these he put to flight with great slaughter, and with very little loss on his side. He then marched forward to Cuzco, and met with no resistance in taking possession of that capital. The riches found there, even after all that the natives had carried off, or concealed, exceeded in value what had been received for the Inca's ransom. But as the number of soldiers was greater, the shares were proportionably smaller. Each person, however, received four thousand pesos, after the king's fifth, and the shares of the officers, were deducted.

Civil as well as foreign war now desolated Peru. The Spaniards had invested the young son of Atahualpa, with the ensigns of royalty, in order to use him as an instrument in completing their conquest. The Peruvians had placed a brother of Huascar on the throne of the Incas; and the general who commanded for Atahualpa in Quito, having seized the brother and children of his master, put them to death and usurped the sovereignty of that kingdom. During these transactions, Ferdinando Pizarro who had been sent to the court of Spain, returned after having met with the most favourable reception. His brother, the general, was confirmed in his authority, and Almagro had a government allotted to him, extending two hundred leagues from the southern limits of that which was assigned to Pizarro.

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In the year 1535, Pizarro laid the foundation of Lima, and about the same time, Almagro attempted the conquest of Chili; but having with great difficulty, penetrated a considerable way into that country, he was recalled and obliged to desist from the enterprise, by a general insurrection of the Peruvians, who then besieged Cuzco and Lima, and with so numerous an army, as to threaten the extinction of the Spanish name in that country. While Pizarro was closely shut up in Lima, Cuzco, where three of his brothers, Juan, Gonzalo, and Ferdinando commanded, was reduced to the last extremity, as the Peruvians directed their principal efforts against that ancient capital. Juan Pizarro, and several other officers of distinction were killed, and the Spaniards had begun to think of abandoning the city. Almagro arriving at this critical moment, defeated the Peruvians, and raised the siege. But having obtained possession of the city, he refused to deliver it up to Pizarro, as he conceived it to be within the limits of his own government. The Peruvians being subdued and dispersed, a bloody civil war commenced between Almagro and Pizarro, which, after being for some time carried on with great vigour and various success, terminated in favour of the latter. Almagro was taken prisoner, in a battle fought on the twenty-sixth day of April, 1538, and afterwards beheaded in the seventy-fifth year of his age, by the command of his antagonist. Pizarro, now considering himself as the unrivalled possessor of Peru, parcelled the whole territory among the conquerors: but from this division, which gave immense estates to many of his adventurers, the partizans of Almagro were excluded, although several of them had eminently contributed to the conquest. This proceeding irritated their minds against the governor, and excited them to revenge. Almagro had left a son, a young man of a noble and generous disposition, to whom the whole party looked up as a leader. A conspiracy was soon formed under his auspices, and Juan de Herrada, an officer of distinguished abilities, had the charge of its execution. On the twenty-sixth of June, 1541, Herrada with eighteen of the

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most determined conspirators, clothed in complete armour, rushed at mid-day into the palace of Lima, and attacked the governor with several of his adherents. Pizarro, although without any other arms than his sword and his buckler, defended himself with a courage worthy of his former exploits; but his few companions being all killed or mortally wounded, he was overpowered by numbers, and fell under the strokes of the conspirators, in the seventy-fourth or seventy-fifth year of his age. The assassins immediately rushed out of the palace, and waving their bloody swords, proclaimed the death of the tyrant. Being joined by about two hundred of their party, they carried young Almagro in procession through the streets, and declared him lawful successor to the government. This election, however, was not agreeable to all: and although numbers of desperate adventurers and of persons disaffected to Pizarro's government, flocked to his standard, many of the officers at a distance from Lima refused to recognize his authority. While things were in this unsettled state, Vaca de Castro arrived from Spain with full powers to assume the government, and speedily assembled a body of troops. The Almagrians, having no hopes of obtaining pardon for so heinous a crime as the murder of the governor, marched against him, and both sides were eager to bring the affair to the speedy decision of the sword. A battle was fought with all the animosity that could be inspired by the rancour of private enmity, and the last efforts of despair. Victory, after remaining long doubtful, declared at last for Vaca de Castro. The carnage was great in proportion to the number of combatants. Of one thousand four hundred, the whole amount of the troops on both sides, five hundred were left dead on the field, and a much greater number were wounded. Of the prisoners that were taken, forty were condemned to death, and the rest banished from Peru. The young Almagro, who had displayed great courage in this engagement, made his escape, but being betrayed by some of his officers, he was taken and beheaded at Cuzco.

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During these transactions in Peru, the court of Spain had formed a variety of new regulations for the better government of the colonies. Vaca de Castro was superseded, and Blasco Nugnez Vela was appointed governor of Peru, with the title of viceroy. The new laws, however, occasioned a great ferment in many of the colonies, but especially in Peru; and Gonzalo Pizarro, brother of the conqueror, put himself at the head of the malcontents. A bloody engagement took place between him and the viceroy, in which the latter, after displaying in an eminent degree the abilities of a commander, and the courage of a soldier, fell covered with wounds. By Gonzalo's order, his head was cut off and placed on the public gibbet in Quito. All Peru now submitted to Gonzalo, who immediately assumed the title of viceroy. Francis Carvajal, one of the boldest and most daring of the Spanish adventurers, and who although near fourscore years of age, possessed all the animation and enterprizing spirit of youth, advised him totally to reject the authority of Spain, and to assume the rank of an independent sovereign. But Gonzalo, considering this as too bold an undertaking, chose rather to rule Peru in subordination to Spain, and aspired no higher than to obtain his confirmation in the office of viceroy. His proceedings, however, became a subject of serious consideration at the court of Charles V.; and it was found necessary to send over some person of consummate prudence, to quell this formidable revolt. Pedro de la Gasca, an ecclesiastic, a man of mild and engaging manners, but of an extraordinary firmness and intrepidity, was chosen for this important undertaking. From the power which Pizarro had acquired, and the distance of Peru from Spain, it was considered a difficult task to reduce him to subjection by force; and it was deemed most expedient to offer a general pardon to him and his adherents, on condition of resigning his authority, and submitting to a viceroy appointed by the crown. Gasca, however, having arrived at Panama, and hearing that Pizarro was preparing for war, found means to assemble a body of men, and proceeding to Peru, endeavoured to compromise

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matters by treaty. But Pizarro would not listen to any terms of accommodation; refused to resign his viceroyalty; and declared Gasca a traitor, and an enemy to the colony. There were, at that time, above six thousand Spaniards settled in Peru, all of them men accustomed to daring and desperate enterprises; and as he had no doubt of their union in his cause, he thought himself able to set every effort of Spain at defiance. Gasca, however, by his address, detached numbers of them from his party, and the royal army was constantly augmented, while the forces of Pizarro gradually diminished. Observing this decrease of his influence, he resolved to bring matters to a decision. Both armies were drawn up in the field, ready for an engagement, when Pizarro, being abandoned by his whole army, except a few faithful adherents, was made prisoner. He was beheaded the next day; and Carvajal, with some others of the most distinguished leaders, suffered the same punishment. The execution of Gonzalo Pizarro, which happened in 1548, put an end to the civil wars of Peru, in which the greatest part of those ferocious and desperate adventurers, who conquered that rich country, fell by each others' hands, in the field, or on the scaffold. It is somewhat remarkable, that among all the adventurers who conquered Mexico and Peru, there were none who could be called regular, or mercenary soldiers, although many of them were extremely indigent, and had money advanced for their equipment, by their principal leaders. Every adventurer considered himself as a conqueror, entitled to share, according to his rank, not only in the spoils, but also in the lands of the conquered country. The conquerors of Peru, however, acquired fortunes much sooner than those of Mexico, as may readily be perceived from this sketch of their history. In Peru, the shares which fell to each man, at the division of Atahualpa's ransom, and at the capture of Cuzco, were sufficient to enrich the first invaders. It is also a singular event in the history of Spain and her colonies, that those rich and extensive countries were subjected to her empire by private individuals, at their own expense and risk. The crown furnished them only

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with commissions, without assisting them with a dollar from the treasury; and the hardships which these Spanish desperadoes suffered, as well as the intrepidity and perseverance which they displayed in prosecuting their enterprises, equal any thing recorded in the history of human adventure.

The religion of the Peruvians was of a very different nature from that of the Mexicans. It was mild and benevolent, and no human sacrifices were offered in the temple of the Sun. Some detached customs, however, indicate a spirit less humane. On the death of an Inca or other eminent person, a great number of his attendants were put to death, and interred round his sepulchre, in order that he might appear in the next world in a manner suitable to his dignity. This, however, does not appear to have been considered as an act of cruelty, as the persons thus put to death were supposed to hold the same offices under their former masters, as they did in this world. Their government was intimately connected with their religion. They worshipped the Sun, and venerated the Inca as his descendant and minister. In the arts of refinement, the Peruvians were superior to all the other Americans. They had the art of smelting silver, and making utensils of that metal, as well as of gold: and the Spaniards found a much greater quantity of those metals in Peru than in Mexico. The buildings of the Peruvians were far more substantial, as well as more elegant, than those of the Mexicans; but their cities were fewer in number, and less populous. Cuzco was in magnitude far inferior to Mexico, and there was no other place in Peru, that deserved the name of a city. The Peruvians seem to have possessed a greater genius for the arts of peace than the Mexicans, but they were far inferior to them in war, and were much more easily conquered.

The religion of those countries is the Roman Catholic, which is professed by the natives, who are subjects of Spain, as well as by the Spaniards. The churches and monasteries are numerous, and many of them exceedingly rich.

The Spanish territories are divided with great precision

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into viceroyalties, audiences, provinces, governments, partidos, and missions, or parishes. The three viceroyalties are those of New Granada, in the north; Peru, including Chili, in the middle; and Buenos Ayres, in the south. The capital of the first is Santa Fe de Bogota; of the second, Lima; and of the third, Buenos Ayres. The most striking characteristic of the politics of Spain, in regard to her American empire, is an extreme caution, which always keeps one main object in view, that of retaining the colonies in the most abject state of dependence on the parent country. For this purpose, every method is practised that can have any tendency to counteract the aspiring views of ambition, and render the colonists inattentive to public concerns. This jealous policy excludes every native of America, although born of Spanish parents, from offices of honour, emolument and trust. The viceroys and other great officers, civil and military, are all natives of Spain, and their appointment is only for a short time. Their power being extensive, and its scene at a great distance, the shortness of its duration is considered as the surest means of securing their dependence. The chief ecclesiastics are also sent from Spain, in conformity to the same general system of policy.

The colonies having no army or navy, independent of the mother country, their military and maritime force is necessarily included in that of Spain, and is increased or diminished as circumstances require. We have not the means of ascertaining the strength of Spanish America, or the number of troops stationed in the different parts of that vast empire. It is certain, however, that it must at all times be small, in proportion to the great extent of territory; and those opulent colonies must consequently present many vulnerable points.

Dr. Robertson computes the net revenue at one million, three hundred and fifty thousand pounds sterling. According to a late writer, however, America is considered as scarcely leaving any clear revenue to the crown of Spain, when all the expenses incurred on its account are

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deducted. These calculations, indeed, are little better than loose conjecture.

Among the articles of commerce which the South American colonies furnish, may be reckoned cocoa, cotton, sugar, Peruvian bark, and various other drugs: but the chief exports consist of the produce of the mines. The statement of the coinage of one year, that of 1790, given by Helms, from the official registers of the mints of Mexico, Lima, Potosi, and St. Jago, may enable us to form some idea of this branch of commerce in the South, as well as in the North American dominions of Spain. According to this writer, the coinage of Mexico in that year, in gold and silver, amounted to eighteen millions, sixty-three thousand, six hundred and eighty-eight piastres of eight reals, or three millions, one hundred and sixty-one thousand, one hundred and forty-five pounds, eight shillings sterling; and that of the three South American mints, to one million, eight hundred and four thousand, eight hundred pounds, fourteen shillings, and six pence. The great difference in the quantity of produce from the mines of Mexico, and from those of South America, he ascribes to the following causes; first, the greater population of Mexico; secondly, its superiority in civil police, commercial arrangements, and habits of industry, in consequence of its being less distant from Spain, and more advantageously situated for trade; and thirdly, the great encouragement given to mining by every commercial house in Mexico. But he asserts that Mexico can bear no comparison with Peru, in the number and opulence of its mines. As the Spaniards have no settlements on the African coast, the colonies are supplied with negroes, chiefly by the Dutch and the Portuguese, and till lately by the English.

The manufactures of South America are of little importance. Its population may probably amount to nine millions. But all computations of this kind, without any positive data, must be considered as vague and unsatisfactory. It is equally impossible to make any just estimate of the number of Spaniards and Creoles, scattered through

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those extensive domains, but they can scarcely be supposed to amount to one million, five hundred thousand. The policy of Spain has invariably tended to keep all other nations in the dark concerning the state of her colonies. This circumstance sufficiently accounts for the defectiveness of our knowledge on these subjects.

The political importance of those immense territories, is at present involved in that of Spain, and to her alone their political relations are confined. But it is easy to conceive their natural importance to be such, that their transfer to any other power would produce a considerable political, as well as commercial revolution; and whenever they shall assume an independent form, a period which certainly must one day arrive, Spanish America, if united, may become one of the most opulent and powerful empires the world has ever seen. Mexico alone would constitute a great and extremely rich state; and South America is still more extensive and wealthy.

The literature of Spanish America is generally represented as very contemptible. There is, indeed, no reason to suppose it in a flourishing state. It is, nevertheless, true, that printing was commenced in Spanish America at least as early as 1671, or thirty-six years before the first establishment of a permanent English colony in the country now called the United States; and that there are at present several periodical papers issuing from Spanish American presses. It is universally allowed, that the Spanish character has degenerated in the colonies. This is easily accounted for, from the private character of the first settlers, the nature of their pursuits, and the circumstances of their situation. Their views are generally those of avarice. The love of money is a sordid passion, which enervates the mind. The degeneracy of the Spanish character in America, may further be attributed to the depressing system of policy, which extinguishes the spirit of enterprise; the flow of wealth, which generates luxury; and the prevalence of slavery, which gives rise to licentiousness, effeminacy, and indolence, in a climate sufficiently favourable to their

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growth. From the best authorities, however, it appears that the Spaniards of America, if they have lost the daring and enterprising spirit of their ancestors, who conquered those regions, are less contaminated with the disgusting vices of avarice and cruelty. Both the Spaniards and Creoles, being attached to luxury, indolence, and ostentation, rather than actuated by the spirit of enterprise, and the avidity of gain, treat their slaves with humanity. This is observable, both in North and South America. In Mexico, Lima, and other great and opulent cities, the negroes, like the Roman slaves in the prosperous ages of Rome, are chiefly employed for domestic purposes, being kept for the sake of ostentation, to swell the retinues of the great and opulent. In South America, indeed, the colonial character appears to be the least contaminated.

PORTUGUESE AMERICA.

The Portuguese empire in South America, extending from the frontiers of Guiana, latitude three degrees north, to Port St. Pedro, in thirty-two degrees south, is about two thousand two hundred and forty miles in length; and the breadth may be considered as of at least an equal extent.

The country towards the coast is, in general, rather low than elevated; but, according to the common accounts, a range, or perhaps different ranges of high mountains run in various directions, but chiefly from north to south, giving rise to numerous streams that flow into the great river Amazon. A great part of the country appears to be covered with wood. But we have no precise knowledge of Brazil, except with respect to the coasts, which have been frequently explored by navigators, and the principal ports at which they have touched in their voyages. From the want of curiosity and science among the Portuguese, this vast country is still less known than Spanish America. The extensive regions watered by the river Amazon, are an immense level, in some parts covered with impenetrable forests, and in others frequently flooded by the annual

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inundations of that river, and its auxiliary streams. Condamine, in sailing down the river Amazon, did not observe a single hill, during the space of two months, after leaving the Pongo, till the mountains of Guiana appeared. Several rivers rise from the elevated tracts of the interior, and run into the Atlantic. Of these, the Rio Francisco is the largest; but none of them are very considerable. They are, however, extremely useful, in affording excellent situations for sugar-mills. Our imperfect topography of this country, leaves us ignorant with regard to the existence of any lakes except those of a temporary kind, formed in the flat country by the annual inundations. The mineralogy of Brazil is one of the most important features of its natural history, and that which has at present the greatest influence on its political and commercial state. Concerning the celebrated mines of this country, however, we have little precise information. All that we know of them is collected from scattered fragments, in relations of voyages often founded on no better authority than vague report. The diamonds of Brazil are not so fine as those of Golconda. By an edict of 1735, the king reserves to himself under certain conditions, all the diamonds that are found to be above twenty carats. Gold mines abound in several of the mountainous tracts, and some of them are far within land. The soil of so extensive a country must afford every possible variety, but according to all that is known or reported, the most luxuriant fertility is its general characteristic. In an extent of thirty-five degrees of latitude, the climate is also various. In the northern parts, under and near the equator, the climate is hot, the tropical rains exceedingly heavy, and the country being flat, and subject to extensive inundations, as well as encumbered with immense forests, the air must necessarily be extremely insalubrious. In proceeding towards the south, the climate as well as the country grows more agreeable; the coasts are refreshed by the sea breezes, and the heat is less violent than in several other countries in the same geographical position. In the southernmost part of Brazil, which lies be-

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yond the tropic of Capricorn, the climate is exceedingly temperate, pleasant and healthful.

The vegetable productions are, in general, the same as in other countries under corresponding parallels of latitude. Those of the greatest importance are sugar, tobacco and ported. The tobacco is excellent. This rich and fertile indigo. Great quantities of sugar are produced and ex- country produces several species of pepper, with a variety of drugs used in medicine, as well as in manufactures, and abounds in all the esculent plants common to the tropical regions. The plantain, the banana, the cocoa and the chocolate nut, are common, and to these many others might be added. The different species of fruits are almost innumerable. Among these, the pine apple, the mango, and the tamarind, hold a distinguished rank. The forests are immense, and the timber appears almost inexhaustible. We have no precise account of the various productions of the Brazilian and Amazonian forests, but among them we find logwood, mahogany, ebony and Brazil wood, from which the country derives its name, and a multitude of others, which grow here in as great perfection and variety as in any part of the world. There is every reason to believe, that the southern parts of Brazil, under proper cultivation, would be extremely fertile in the various kinds of European grain, and perhaps also in wine. But the more profitable cultivation of sugar, impedes that of grain, and the general spirit of speculation in mining, causes agriculture to be neglected. The zoology of Brazil corresponds, in general, with that of Spanish America. The remarkable circumstance of the existence of herds of wild cattle is common to both. In the northern parts of Brazil, as well as in the Spanish territories, they are so numerous, that they are hunted for their hides, which constitute a considerable article of the exports, both of Spanish and Portuguese America. In various parts, especially of the northern provinces, serpents abound, and attain to an enormous size. The Brazilian seas are also well stocked with fish. We are not informed of any remarkable curiosities in Brazil.

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CHIEF CITIES.

Rio de Janeiro, or, as it is sometimes called, the city of St. Sebastian, the capital of Brazil, is situated in twenty-two degrees, fifty-minutes south latitude; about four miles within the entrance of a bay of the same name, which forms a harbour, that for convenience can scarcely be excelled. The city is built on a projecting tongue of land, and all the ground behind is broken into hills and rocks, on the summits of which, are woods, houses, convents, and churches. The squares are adorned with fountains, supplying water from a magnificent aqueduct. The water is excellent, and the aqueduct is a great ornament to the town. The shops are well stocked with Manchester goods, and all other sorts of English manufactures. The markets are well supplied, and the city is in a flourishing state.

At Rio de Janeiro all is bustle and activity in the various pursuits of business, devotion, and pleasure. The city has several public walks: and operas, balls, and masquerades, with a fine public garden, contribute to the amusement of its inhabitants. Notwithstanding, however, this general appearance of gaiety, the external offices of religion are assiduously observed. Every hour in the day bells and other signals announce some religious solemnity, and the streets are often crowded with processions. The inhabitants have, in general, an air of gaiety and contentment, and even the slaves exhibit no indications of misery. The slave trade is here carried on to a great extent. Of about twenty thousand negroes annually imported into Brazil, nearly five thousand are sold at Rio de Janeiro, at the average price of twenty-eight pounds sterling a head. The population of this city is estimated at not less than forty thousand blacks, and about three thousand whites. The Portuguese ladies are remarked for their fine black eyes, and animated countenances.

The environs of Rio de Janeiro are grand and picturesque. The shores of the harbour are diversified and embellished with cottages, farms, and plantations, separated by rivulets,

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ridges of rocks, indentures of small bays, or the skirts of forests: and the whole terminates in the distant prospect of an amphitheatre of mountains, rising in rude fantastic forms, and covered with trees to their summits. With all these beauties of situation, the atmosphere is unwholesome. The inland mountains and forests, prevent the circulation of the air, and some marshy places near the town, the greatest part of which stands in a plain, emit noxious exhalations. From these causes the nights are generally damp and foggy, and musquitoes abound. Rio de Janeiro merits particular attention, being destined in all probability to be one day the capital of a vast independent empire, which shall perpetuate the Portuguese name and nation in spite of all the revolutions of Europe. It is at present the residence of the royal family of Portugal, and the second civilized sovereign power in the new world. As such it has been recognized by the United States of North America, by the appointment of a minister plenipotentiary.

The religion of Brazil is the Roman Catholic. Here are six episcopal sees, of which the bishops are suffragans of the archbishop of St. Salvador. Most of those dignified ecclesiastics are natives of Portugal, who find a comfortable subsistence on this side of the Atlantic. Churches and convents are indeed sufficiently numerous. The government was formerly vested in a viceroy, whose office has now been superseded by the presence of the reigning monarch. The laws may be presumed to correspond, in general, with those of Portugal. Of the military force kept up in this important colony, there is no certain account, but it is undoubtedly small in proportion to the extent of territory. The naval force stationed on the coasts seldom exceeded two or three small frigates, but this number is now increased by the navy of the parent country. The revenue which the crown of Portugal used to derive from Brazil, has been the subject of different statements and conjectures. By the best information, it has been stated at one million of pounds sterling, of which one-third may be assigned for the expenses of the government. The chief part of this revenue is de-

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rived from the diamond mines, which are now the exclusive property of the crown, and from the king's fifth of the produce of the gold mines.

The commerce of Brazil is of great importance. Anderson has given, in detail, the immensely rich cargoes of the two fleets which arrived, in 1734, at Lisbon, from Bahia, or St. Salvador, and Rio de Janeiro. These consisted of fifteen millions five hundred thousand crusados in gold, besides a vast quantity in dust, ingots, and bars, as well as of diamonds; together with sugar, tobacco, hides, and various other kinds of merchandise. The colony, since that time, has become much more flourishing; and, from recent events, its commerce is now still more important and extensive. The exports, as already observed, consist chiefly of the produce of the mines, sugar, tobacco, hides, indigo, various drugs, materials for dyeing, &c. The imports are, corn, wine, and several other European productions, with almost all the articles of European manufacture. The Brazilians, however, have begun to make for themselves several of the most necessary articles of consumption. The population of this extensive region has not yet been given in any accurate statement, some having estimated it at nine hundred thousand, and others at six hundred thousand souls.

The literature of Portugal is inferior to that of almost every other European country; but that of Brazil is in a state truly contemptible. The polite arts are little known in the colony.

Luxury, ostentation, and indolence, are the general characteristics of the Portuguese in Brazil. In proportion, indeed, to the prevalence of negro slavery, these features are more or less predominant throughout America, and the West Indies. In Brazil, this system prevails in its full extent. The neighbourhood of the African coast supplies the indolence of the rich, and the avarice of the planters with great numbers of menial servants, and robust labourers, at a moderate price. About twenty thousand negroes are annually imported into Brazil, the price being not above

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twenty-eight pounds each, for such as are sold for seventy pounds in the West Indies, or for three hundred and fifty dollars in Carolina and Georgia. Labour of every description is chiefly performed by slaves; and so great is the number of domestic negroes, that in some towns, where the greatest dissipation and extravagance prevails, it exceeds that of the whites in a ten fold proportion. The easy condition of negro slaves in Spanish America has already been noticed. Their state in Brazil is nearly similar. The peculiar circumstances of the Spanish and Portuguese colonies in America, in combination with the luxurious modes of life which there prevail, have introduced a system of negro slavery greatly different from that which has long prevailed in the other European colonies. In the Spanish and Portuguese settlements, the numerous Indian population has inculcated the policy of attaching the negroes to the European interest, in case of any contest with the natives. With this view, the legislature has used every prudent means of encouraging their acquisition of rights and privileges. In these countries, the state of the slaves has a much greater resemblance to that of the villains in Europe, in the feudal times, or even to that of the Russian peasantry, than to slavery as it exists in the West Indies. The Spanish and Portuguese negroes enjoy the same protection of the laws, the same possession of rights, and the same power of acquiring property, that marked the condition of the European bondmen in their progress towards liberty. The negroes are a sort of tenants, or undertakers of work. In particular districts, the master supplies the slave with a certain quantity of provisions and tools, and the slave is obliged to return a certain quantity of gold and jewels.* All that remains over this fixed amount, how great soever may be its value, is the property of the slave. Under such regulations, a negro, who happens to be fortunate in his undertakings, may sometimes acquire a very considerable property. The rich pearl fisheries of Panama, and other

* Brougham's Col. Pol. vol. 2, book iv.

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parts, are, in the same manner, in the hands, as it were, of negro tenants. The slaves in the towns are allowed to hire themselves out at different kinds of employment, on condition of paying to their masters a certain portion of their wages. After a slave has by any means acquired property, and wishes to purchase his freedom, if the master's demand be exorbitant, the laws enable him to have the price fixed by sworn appraisers, appointed by the magistrate. On all occasions, in case of ill treatment, the slaves can, on making complaint to the magistrate, procure immediate redress. In consequence of these regulations, the slaves are faithful and laborious; the free negroes are numerous, industrious, quiet, and attached to the country and government. The greatest part of the artificers are of this latter class, from which some of the best troops in Spanish and Portuguese America have been taken. These circumstances will add greatly to the strength of the colonies, either in repelling foreign invasion, or in asserting their independence. This part of the moral picture of Spanish and Portuguese America demonstrates, that the existing system in those countries is gradually preparing the way for the complete emancipation of the American slaves, by a process analogous to that which liberated the European villains. The lenity with which the slaves are treated is, however, far from having a beneficial effect on their morals, although in Brazil, at least, they are probably corrupted less by indulgence than by example. If the morals of the South American Spaniards be as untainted as any of the other European colonists, it is universally agreed that the Portuguese of Brazil are the most corrupt of all cis-atlantic nations. In the country districts, they may, in regard to morals, be placed in the same degree of the scale as the inhabitants of the West India islands; but in the great cities, the Portuguese and Creoles seem to unite the worst parts of the character of the most vicious nations. The opulent and luxurious cities of St. Salvador and Rio de Janeiro are regarded as the centre of criminal dissipation, where the scattered vices of all countries are collected.

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Brazil was discovered in 1498, but no settlement was formed till 1549, when the Portuguese fixed themselves at the bay of All Saints, and founded the city of St. Salvador, which was made an archbishopric, and the seat of the viceroy. Portugal, in the year 1580, lost her independence, and was, with all her flourishing colonies, absorbed in the then enormous empire of Spain. That fatal revolution, which obscured the glory and overturned the power of Portugal, deprived her of most of her valuable settlements in the East, and had nearly produced the same effect in the West. The Dutch having seized her chief possessions in the former, turned their arms against her American territories. They reduced the greatest part of Brazil, and would probably have completed the conquest, had not the courage and conduct of the archbishop, assisted by a few priests and monks, who could fight as well as pray, given a check to their progress. The Dutch made their first attack on Brazil in 1624, and before the end of 1636, had gained possession of the greatest part of the country. The Portuguese, however, after emancipating themselves from the yoke of Spain, gradually gained ground in Brazil; and in 1654, totally expelled the Dutch, about thirty years after they had first obtained a footing in that country. From that epoch, the Portuguese have remained in peaceable possession of this exceedingly rich and extensive territory; and the late removal of the Portuguese court to this country, forms a new and important æra in its history.

GUIANA OR CAYENNE.

The settlement of Guiana or Cayenne, so called from a small island in which the chief town is situated, lies between the equator and the sixth degree of north latitude, and extends about three hundred miles from north to south, and about two hundred and forty from east to west, along the shores of the Atlantic Ocean. The land near the coast is low, and subject to great inundations during the season of the tropical rains. The soil is, in general, fertile; but the

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vast extent of the forests and flooded grounds, renders the air unhealthful. The most noted productions are sugar, cocoa, indigo and Cayenne pepper, which derives its name from this country. The chief town, called Cayenne, is situated in a swampy and unhealthy island, about thirty miles in circumference. The town does not contain above one thousand two hundred white inhabitants, exclusive of the garrison. This dreary spot was the place of exile to which the celebrated General Pichegru, with his associates, were in September 1797, doomed by the directory of France. This country is now subject to Great Britain.

Guiana, frequently called Surinam, from the river of that name, is situated on the north-east of Cayenne, and between five and seven degrees north latitude. The face of the country is flat, to the distance of about one hundred miles from the sea, and subject to inundations. It is watered by several rivers, the chief of which are the Essequibo, the Surinam, the Demerara, the Berbice and the Conga. The Essequibo is more than three hundred miles in length, and nine miles wide at its mouth. The Surinam is a fine river, three quarters of a mile in width, navigable for the largest ships to the distance of twelve miles within land, and sixty or seventy miles further for smaller vessels. The banks, quite down to the water's edge, are covered with evergreen mangrove trees, which render its navigation extremely pleasant. No country, perhaps, on the surface of the globe has a richer soil, or displays a more luxuriant vegetation than Guiana. The climate in the autumnal months is unhealthy. Along the coast the air is damp and sultry, and the waters brackish and unwholesome. The sea breeze from the north-east, however, contributes to refresh the atmosphere. The waters of the lower parts of the river being unfit for drinking, the inhabitants make use of rain water, caught in cisterns. The vegetable productions are chiefly sugar, coffee, cocoa, cotton, indigo, ginger, rice, tobacco, and all the tropical plants and fruits, except such as require a dry and sandy soil. The botany of this country is a copious subject, and has been better illustrated than that

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of any other part of South America. An herbaceous plant called troolie, grows here, which must be esteemed a singular production of nature. Its leaves lie on the ground, and sometimes attain the almost incredible dimensions of thirty feet in length, and three in breadth. So extraordinary a production is not bestowed on this country in vain; it serves as a general covering for houses, and will last several years without any repair.* This country also produces quassia, the castor-oil nut, ipecacuanha, and balsam of capivi, as well as some of the most mortal poisons, both of the slow and the rapid kind, but equally fatal in their operation. The woods are infested with tigers, but of a different species from those of Africa. The birds of Surinam are remarked for the beauty of their plumage, but few of them are famed for their melody. The rivers abound with fish, and are rendered dangerous by the alligators. The reptiles and insects are numerous, and of an endless variety of species; among them may be reckoned scorpions, and tarantulas of the largest size, and the most venomous nature. Serpents of various kinds also abound. Of these, some are venomous, and others remarkable for their enormous size. One kind of snake is described as attaining the prodigious dimensions of thirty-three feet in length, and three feet in circumference, being, with the exception of the Boa of India, perhaps, the largest of all the serpent tribes. The immeasurable swamps and entangled forests of Guiana, Amazonia, and the northern parts of Brazil, where the combination of heat and moisture characterize the climate, are the great nursery and unmolested rendezvous of the serpent and insect race.

The chief town of Guiana is Paramaribo, situated on the western bank of the river of Surinam, at the distance of about twelve miles from its mouth, in latitude six degrees north. It contains about two thousand white inhabitants, of whom about one-half are Jews. The same remark may be extended to the whole colony, a circumstance arising

* Pinkerton.

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from the expulsion of that people from Brazil. The disproportion of colours is greater in this, than in any other European colony. On comparing the accounts of different writers, it appears that the slave population exceeds that of the whites, in the proportion of at least twelve to one, and this is the colony in which slaves have always been the worst treated. Nothing, indeed, can be more horrible than the accounts which various authors have given of the inhumanity of the colonists in Surinam towards this unhappy class of men. If the Dutch have in this respect surpassed all the other Europeans, they have been the first that have felt the effects of this impolitic as well as unprincipled conduct. Bands of negroes, impelled to revolt by despair, have retired into the interior parts of the province, and under leaders of their own, have formed themselves into a distinct community. These Maroons, as they are called, rapidly increasing in numbers by successive desertions from the settlement, soon became formidable to their former masters. The defence of the colony against the negro power, has for near a century past, been a principal object of the Dutch government in Surinam. At last, in the year 1773, the whole settlement was surrounded with a cordon and forts at small intervals, as a bulwark against the negroes. This measure rendered a strong military force indispensably necessary. The critical situation of the colony obliged all the white inhabitants who were able to bear arms, to form themselves into a militia, and led them to use every means of conciliating the native tribes and procuring their assistance. These circumstances exhibit a striking feature in the history of negro slavery, and form an interesting contrast with what is seen in Spanish and Portuguese America, where the negroes being liberally treated, and enjoying many opportunities of emancipation, have never shown any disposition to revolt.*

* See Brougham's investigations of these subjects, Col. Pol. Vol. i. book 1, 2, and 4.

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ABORIGINAL TRIBES AND UNCONQUERED COUNTRIES.

A very considerable part of South America still enjoys its native liberty. The immense interior region from Guiana to the Spanish province of La Plata, may be comprised in this description; and further towards the south, Patagonia is still possessed by its wandering and savage tribes. These countries are yet unexplored except by voyagers on the Maranon, and some of the principal rivers which discharge themselves into that vast channel of the South American waters. Here nothing is seen but wide regions, extending along the banks, covered with immense and impenetrable forests, or flooded by the annual inundations. The vast countries called Amazonia are, for the most part, comprised within the ostensible limits of the Portuguese empire; and further to the south, a considerable portion of the interior is claimed by the Spaniards. The Portuguese are sole masters of the Maranon, or river of Amazons, as the Spaniards are of that of La Plata; and both these nations have extended their scattered settlements along their banks to a vast distance into the country. Their empire, however, is here only nominal, and the central parts of the South American continent are, in general, possessed solely by the aboriginal nations. Little is known with certainty of these vast tracts. They are supposed to be an immense level of the most luxuriant fertility, abounding in wild beasts and venomous reptiles, and inhabited by numerous tribes of savages, who, like their country, are in a state of uncultivated nature. Some writers affirm that these aboriginal Americans display considerable ingenuity in the construction of their canoes, as well as in the manufacture of their warlike weapons, &c. The want of accurate knowledge with respect to these tribes, has in this, as in many other cases, been supplied by fiction. In the fabulous ages of remote antiquity, the Greeks had imagined the existence of a nation of Amazons. With this fiction, they embellished many of their histories, as well as their poems. Other na-

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tions adopted the fable. The Spaniards, charmed with this dream of antiquity, transferred it to America. There they fixed the Amazons, and feigned a number of appropriate circumstances to give the romance an air of credibility. Since the propagation of this story, great pains have been taken to ascertain the fact; but this modern phenomenon has hitherto eluded all research. Of the savages of Paraguay, the more southern part of this central region, we have somewhat more knowledge. The natives of this part of South America are, in general, of a good size and of a fairer complexion than most of the other aborigines of that continent. They display also considerable ingenuity, vivacity and wit. The Abipons appear to be a warlike tribe, but their number is not above six thousand. They inhabit the country near the banks of the Rio Grande, a river which falls into the Paraguay, not far from its junction with the Parana. Their features resemble the European, and the nose is commonly of the aquiline form. From their childhood they are accustomed to the use of the bow. Their arrows are sometimes pointed with iron, and they are also armed with spears of above eight yards in length. These people have, by their ferocious and warlike spirit, rendered themselves formidable to the interior settlers. They undertake all their expeditions on horseback. To supply themselves with horses, they catch and tame those, which, as already related, run wild in the woods. They appear to have no idea of a Supreme Deity, but acknowledge an evil principle, whose malevolence they endeavour to avert. Their magicians have great power and influence. The interior part of Paraguay constituted the theatre on which the Jesuits, in the seventeenth century, erected a spiritual and temporal dominion that astonished the world. That religious order, which, for the policy of its measures, as well as for the talents and erudition of many of its members, has been the most celebrated of all those that have flourished in the church of Rome, was then in the meridian of its power and credit. In this favourable moment, the Jesuits represented to the court of Madrid, that the immorality and imperious conduct of

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the Spaniards excited the aversion of the Indians against their government, and that through the ministry of their order, extensive regions and myriads of uncivilized savages, might without force or expense, be converted to the Catholic religion, and brought under the dominion of the crown of Spain. The project was approved of. The sphere of their operations was marked out, and they entered with great spirit and activity on their arduous undertaking. It is difficult to conceive the motive that induced these men to abandon the seats of ease and tranquillity, in order to traverse immense deserts, to plunge into unexplored swamps, and subject themselves to every kind of misery and danger, in the midst of ferocious and unknown savages. Whether it was an avidity of wealth, a thirst for glory, or zeal for religion, that impelled them to sacrifice all the comforts of civilized society, and encounter so many difficulties and dangers, remains a problem in the history of the human mind. Their enterprising spirit, and vigorous perseverance, however, were crowned with success. They found the inhabitants but little removed from a state of nature, strangers to the arts and comforts of civilized life, subsisting precariously by hunting and fishing, scarcely acquainted with the first principles of subordination and government. The Jesuits were so successful as to civilize and Christianize these savage tribes. They taught them to cultivate the ground—to rear domestic animals—to build houses, and live in villages. They instructed them in arts and manufactures—accustomed them to the blessings of security and order, and taught them to relish the pleasures of society. Respected and beloved almost to adoration, a few Jesuits presided over many thousands of Indians, whom they governed with a paternal attention. They maintained a perfect equality among all the members of the community. The produce of their fields, and all the fruits of their industry, were deposited in common storehouses, from which every individual received what was necessary for the supply of his wants. By this singular institution, almost all the passions that disturb the peace of society were extinguished. Pu-

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nishments were, therefore, extremely rare, and no rigorous laws were necessary.

The Jesuits had so arranged their plan, that their government formed a kind of imperium in imperio. On condition of allegiance to the crown of Spain, and of paying the capitation tax for their subjects, they were left absolute masters of the administration of their extensive provinces; and their whole system was artfully calculated for the establishment of an independent empire, which should acknowlege no other sovereign than the society. They cut off all communication between their subjects and the neighbouring settlements; they endeavoured to inspire the Indians with a hatred and contempt of the Spaniards and Portuguese; and prohibited the private traders of either nation from entering the territory of the mission. Even such as were admitted in a public capacity from the neighbouring governments, were not allowed to have any conversation with the inhabitants. In order to render all communication as difficult as possible, they carefully avoided giving their subjects any knowledge of the Spanish or other European tongue; but laboured to make a certain native dialect the universal language throughout their dominions. Having, like the priests of ancient Egypt, acquired an unlimited influence over the minds of the people, secured their attachment and veneration, and monopolized all the sources of power and emolument, they instructed their subjects in the European art of war, in order to give stability and permanency to their empire. They formed them into bodies of cavalry and infantry, completely armed and regularly disciplined. They provided a sufficient train of artillery, together with magazines well stored with the implements of war, and thus established a military force not a little formidable to their Spanish and Portuguese neighbours. Such is the account given by historians, of the empire established by the Jesuits in South America. Its tranquillity was not interrupted, nor its force called into exertion, till the year 1757, when part of the country being ceded to Portugal by Spain, the Jesuits refused to submit to this transfer. The persecution of their

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order in Portugal, and afterwards in France, involved them in a new series of troubles; and at last, in 1767, they were expelled from America. It must, however, be observed, that this piece of history appears to partake of the mystery in which every thing relating to that celebrated order is involved. Dr. Robertson, who consulted not only Charlevoix and Ulloa, but also the reports of Chalotais and Monclar, and most of the works that were written concerning the Jesuits, at a period when their affairs attracted the attention of Europe, seems to give implicit credit to the history of their empire in South America, as it is here related, nearly in his own language.* But it must be confessed, that in the accounts of modern travellers, no marks appear of that exalted state of civilization, which has been represented in colours so attractive, and of which the traces could scarcely have been so soon obliterated. And it is equally certain, that their armies, which in the writings of historians appear so numerous and formidable, soon vanished before the European troops. There is, on the whole, strong reason to suspect, that the history of the power of the Jesuits in Paraguay, and of the civilization and happiness of their subjects, has been considerably exaggerated.

A numerous Indian population exists both in Spanish and Portuguese America. The same may be said of Guiana, of which a small part only is subdued and colonized. The natives of Brazil are represented, for the most part, as irreclaimable savages, of a middle stature, strong and muscular. Some of those of Guiana are peaceable and inoffensive, but others are the most ferocious of human beings, especially the Caribs, who are said to be cannibals.† In Terra Firma are various native tribes, who are yet unsubdued. The Peruvians were found to possess a considerable degree of civilization, and are ingenious, humane, and lively. The Chilians are a warlike people. They made a vigorous opposition against the Spaniards on their first in-

* Robertson's Hist. Charles V. vol. 3, book vi.

† Bancroft's Nat. Hist. of Guiana, p. 260.

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vasion of the country, and towards the mountains numerous tribes are yet free and formidable. Patagonia, a country for the most part level, but dry, destitute of timber, and in a cold climate, is left entirely in the possession of the natives. It is here that a real or fictitious nation of giants has caused as much controversy as that of the Amazons.

WEST INDIA ISLANDS.

The numerous and important islands which border the Gulf of Mexico, extending nearly from East Florida, almost to the mouth of the Oroonoko, have obtained the name of West Indies, from an erroneous opinion entertained by the first discoverers, that they constituted a part of India, or that they were not far distant from that continent. The principal of these ranging in a direction from west to east, are Cuba, Jamaica, St. Domingo, and Porto Rico. These are followed by that remarkable groupe, known to the English by the names of Leeward and Windward Islands; the former distinction extending from Porto Rico to Dominica; the latter comprising Martinico and all the southern part of the range. The French include them all under the appellation of windward, as being situated towards the east, the point of the trade wind: they are also known in geography by the names of the Antilles, and the Caribbee Islands. Their situation and products are such, as to render them of great commercial importance, but, excepting St. Domingo, their political weight is considerable only by their connexion with Europe. The West India Islands are so well known, that a minute description is unnecessary, and a general view will suffice for every purpose.

ST. DOMINGO.

Of all the islands comprised in this extensive range, Hispaniola or St. Domingo, constituting an independent negro

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government, a phenomenon in the history of the new world, has acquired the greatest political importance, and merits in the highest degree the attention of the statesman and the philosopher. The central part of St. Domingo, is situated under the nineteenth degree of north latitude. Its extent may be computed at something more than four hundred English miles in length, from east to west, by about one hundred and twenty miles in its greatest, or one hundred in its medial breadth. The face of the country is exceedingly diversified. Towards the coasts, numerous vallies and extensive plains display the most luxuriant fertility. The interior of the island is mountainous, and presents an intricate mass of hills, vallies, and forests, which, notwithstanding the early colonization of the coasts, appear to be imperfectly known to the Europeans. The climate, like that of the rest of the West Indies, is hot and extremely unfavourable to health. Homspech's regiment of hussars was in little more than two months reduced from one thousand to three hundred; and the ninety-sixth regiment totally perished on this inhospitable shore. Of fifteen thousand British and foreign troops employed in the expedition to St. Domingo, no more than three thousand were left alive and fit for service at the end of the year 1797; and about five thousand seamen are said to have perished in that ill fated enterprise.* The Europeans, however, having pecuniary gain for their chief object in the establishment of colonies, have invariably postponed the advantages of health to the views of avarice; and in the eye of the merchant, or the planter, the exuberant fertility of the soil of St. Domingo, might amply compensate for the inconveniences of the climate. The average produce of all the sugar lands, while in the hands of the French, was not less than twenty-four hundred weight per acre, which is three times the average fertility of those of Jamaica. In the richest soil of St. Domingo, a single acre has been known to yield the enormous quantity of two tons and a half of sugar. Before the revolution, the annual value of the exports in sugar, coffee, in-

* Edwards's Hist. of the West Indies.

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digo, molasses, rum, raw and tanned hides, amounted to about four millions, seven hundred and sixty-five thousand, one hundred and twenty-nine pounds sterling. In regard to commerce, St. Domingo was the most valuable of all the West India islands, and a mine of wealth to France.

Of all the European settlements, too, this was the most remarkable for the abundant importation of slaves. During the ten years previous to the revolution, the average number of negroes annually imported, amounted to twenty-nine thousand. And amidst this immense influx of Africans, the number of white inhabitants had somewhat decreased. In the year 1790, the population of the French part of St. Domingo, amounted to four hundred and eighty thousand negro slaves, with about twenty-four thousand mulattoes, or free people of colour, and no more than thirty thousand eight hundred and thirty whites. From a view of these circumstances, it is easy to perceive, that the extent to which the slave trade was carried, paved the way to that tremendous revolution which proved so fatal to those dealers in human flesh, whose grand object was to acquire by the sweat and the toil of the negroes in St. Domingo, a fortune that might enable them to pass the rest of their lives in the luxury of Europe. The injudicious attempts of the national assembly of France to reform her colonial system, at a moment, when the mother country was agitated by the most violent commotions, gave the impulse to that dangerous power, which the rapid increase of black population had introduced into St. Domingo. Some contradictory decrees of that assembly respecting the rights of the free mulattoes, to vote for representatives, excited the first disturbances, which were further fomented by the intrigues of the French planters. Various struggles ensued between the whites and the people of colour. The commissioners of France had emancipated and armed the slaves, in order to defend the island against the English. The revolutionizing and levelling spirit of France was introduced into her colonies, and St. Domingo afforded an ample and favourable field for its operations. The consequence has been,

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that, after a war of many years on the cruel principle of extermination, the French are totally expelled from all parts of the island, and the singular spectacle is exhibited of an independent and powerful negro empire, in the most commanding situation of the West Indies.

CUBA.

The island of Cuba may be ranked next to St. Domingo, to which it is equal or even superior in extent, and inferior only in political importance. The southernmost part of the coast is under the parallel of twenty degrees north, which is nearly the latitude of the northern shores of St. Domingo; and the northern extremity extends almost to the tropic of Cancer. Cuba is about seven hundred miles in length, by something less than seventy in medial breadth. A chain of mountains runs across the interior, from east to west; but the soil is in general extremely fertile. It produces a great quantity of sugar; and its tobacco has a finer flavour than that of any other part of America. Among its productions may also be reckoned cocoa, mastic, long pepper, ginger and aloes. The forests produce ebony, mahogany, and most of the different species of West India timber; they also abound with cattle and swine. In consequence of the more liberal policy, which Spain has adopted in her colonial system, since 1765, the state of Cuba is greatly improved. In a few years its cultivation has been so greatly extended, that its trade, instead of requiring only six vessels, as formerly, soon employed two hundred. The coast has several good harbours. St. Jago, on the south side of the island, was formerly the capital; but that honour is now transferred to the Havanna, situated on the northern coast. This city was founded about the year 1519. In 1669, it was taken by Morgan, the famous buccaneer. It surrendered in 1761, after a gallant defence, to the British arms under admiral Pocock and the earl of Albemarle; but in two years afterwards was restored to Spain. Since the peace of 1763, its fortifications have been greatly augmented, and

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are now reckoned almost impregnable. Cuba was first discovered by Columbus. But he soon afterwards abandoned it for St. Domingo, where he expected to find greater abundance of gold. Some gold dust, however, is found in the rivers, or rather rivulets of Cuba; and there are mines of excellent copper. The gold mines of St. Domingo seem not to have fully answered the expectations of the Spaniards, who abandoned them as soon as those of Mexico were discovered. It was not known whether Cuba was an island or part of the continent, till it was circumnavigated by Ocampo, in 1508; and in 1511, it was conquered by three hundred Spaniards, under Don Diego de Velasquez. From that time, until after the conquest of Mexico, Cuba seems to have been the principal seat of the Spanish power in America.

JAMAICA.

Jamaica, the chief of the British West India Islands, is in extent the third in the American Archipelago, being about one hundred and seventy miles in length, by sixty in breadth. A ridge of mountains runs from east to west, quite through the middle of the island, and forms a variety of beautiful landscapes. The lower declivities are covered with forest, overtopped by the blue summits of the central ridge. The blue mountain peak rises seven thousand four hundred and thirty-one feet, or nearly a mile and a half above the level of the sea; and the precipices are interspersed with beautiful savannas. From these central mountains descend above one hundred rivulets, of which the Black River, running to the south, is the most considerable. By the industry of the planters, Jamaica is become a flourishing settlement, but in fertility it is far inferior to St. Domingo and Cuba; and the climate, though tempered by the sea breezes, is extremely hot. St. Jago, or Spanish Town, is regarded as the capital, but Kingston is the principal port. The population is composed of two hundred and fifty thousand negroes, ten thousand mulattoes, and about twenty thousand white inhabitants. The legislature consists of the

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governor, the council of twelve, nominated by the crown, and a representative assembly of forty-three members, chosen by the freeholders. The importation of slaves from Africa, formerly constituted a considerable part of the trade of this island. To the immortal honour of the British parliament, this commerce is now abolished; and the capital which it employed will be directed into some more laudable, perhaps, more profitable channel. The chief exports of Jamaica to Great Britain, Ireland, and North America, are sugar, rum, coffee, indigo, ginger and pimento. In 1787, they were estimated at the value of two millions of pounds sterling; and the imports at one million five hundred thousand pounds. The intercourse with Honduras and other parts of the Mexican coast, is now nearly abandoned; but some little trade is carried on with Spanish America, by small vessels which elude the vigilance of the Guarda Costas. The annual revenue of the island, arising from a poll tax, with a duty on rum, and formerly on negroes, amounted to more than one hundred thousand pounds sterling, of which about seventy-five thousand pounds went to defray the ordinary expenses of government. Jamaica was first discovered by Columbus in his second voyage, A. D. 1494. In 1655, it fell into the hands of the English, in whose possession it has ever since remained. The most striking events in its history are the wars with the Maroons, or independent negroes. These were originally slaves to the Spaniards, and being left behind when their masters evacuated the island, retired to the mountains, where they maintained their independence until they were lately subdued, and most of them sent to Nova Scotia.

PORTO RICO.

Porto Rico, which belongs to Spain, is about one hundred and twenty miles in length, by about forty in breadth. It is a beautiful, well watered, and fertile island. The productions are the same as those of Cuba. The northern parts are said to contain some mines of gold and silver; but the richer veins of Mexico and Peru have caused them

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to be neglected. This island was one of those discovered by Columbus. In 1509, it was conquered by Ponce de Leon, the first explorer of Florida.

THE ANTILLES, OR CARIBBEE ISLANDS.

The Caribbee islands, including Barbadoes, which stands detached towards the east, at some distance from the general range, are extremely fertile, and of great commercial advantage to their possessors, who are chiefly the English and the French. Belonging to the former are Barbadoes, Antigua, St. Christopher's, St. Vincent's, Dominica, Granada, Montserrat, Nevis, and the Virgin isles. Martinique, Guadaloupe, St. Lucie, and Tobago, were formerly French, but have lately been reduced by Great Britain. The Danish islands are St. Croix, St. Thomas, and St. John. The Swedes possess St. Bartholomew's, and the Dutch, St. Eustatia. Of the whole groupe, Guadaloupe and Barbadoes are the most important. The first, including Grand Terre, far surpasses any of the others in size, being about sixty miles in length, by twenty-five in breadth. Barbadoes, although only about twenty miles in length, and thirteen in breadth, is supposed to contain seventeen thousand white inhabitants, to export annually ten thousand hogsheads of sugar, and six thousand puncheons of rum, besides cotton and other commodities. Martinique is also a valuable island. St. Vincent's may be considered as divided between the English and the black Caribs, a sort of Maroons or descendants of revolted negroes; the whole British territory consisting of only six parishes. In some of these islands, are short ranges of central hills; but the coasts are in general level, and display the most exuberant fertility. Dominica contains several volcanoes, and there is reason to believe that there have formerly been many in Guadaloupe. The noted souffriere, in this island, is a natural curiosity, being a vast mass of sulphur or sulphurated earth, which emits a continual smoke. The productions of all these islands are similar, consisting of sugar, rum, coffee, cocoa, cotton, indigo, &c.

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A groupe of islands also runs parallel to the coast of South America, of which the most noted are Curaçoa and Bonair, the former belonging to Great Britain, the latter to the Dutch. Under this division may also be classed the island of Trinidad, recently ceded by Spain to Great Britain. It is situated under the tenth parallel of north latitude, and is about eighty or ninety miles in length. About one-third of the island consists of mountainous tracts; the rest has a fertile soil. The southern side is well adapted to the culture of coffee, and the western coast has a safe and commodious harbour. The climate of Trinidad is represented as excellent, and remarkably free from those hurricanes, which so often spread devastation in the other West India islands; but the vehemence of the north winds has been found prejudicial to the cocoa plantations. The Bahama islands form a numerous groupe, but are little known or noticed. The soil is, in general, barren; their trade is consequently small, and their exports of little value. The whole number of English settlers in these islands does not exceed four thousand.

GENERAL OBSERVATIONS ON THE WEST INDIES.

The situation of the West India islands within the torrid zone—the similarity of climate, products and commerce—the mixture of European and African inhabitants—and in fine, the whole combination of physical and moral circumstances, place them in nearly the same common predicament, and render some general observations applicable to the whole of this interesting portion of the globe. A mountainous and woody interior, presenting lofty heights, and encumbered with pathless forests and waste fertility, contrasted with level and cultivated coasts, may be regarded as the most striking geographical feature in all the larger, and most of the smaller islands. Their situation indicates the common advantages and inconveniences of the tropical climates. From their exposure to the sea breezes, the heat in the West India islands, however, is far from being so intense, as in the interior of Africa, Arabia, or Persia, where

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this refreshing influence is wanting. In all these islands the sea breeze commences about nine or ten in the morning, when the solar rays have to a certain degree heated the land, and rarefied the incumbent air. This breeze blows from every point of the compass, from the surrounding coast towards the interior. In the evening, when the earth is cool, the land breeze begins, and blows in every direction from the centre of the island towards the coast. This alternate motion of the winds, constantly tending to restore the equilibrium of the air, in proportion as it is destroyed by rarefaction, greatly contributes to mitigate the heat of the climate. The combination of heat and moisture, in the West Indies, however, is such as to render them very dangerous to European constitutions. The frequency of hurricanes, which ruin at once all the hopes of the planter, and occasional recurrence of earthquakes, which have sometimes proved so fatal in Cuba, Jamaica, and other islands, must also be considered as a striking and tremendous characteristic of the West India climate.

The peculiar circumstances of the West Indies have given rise to a particular state of society, in a great measure common to all the islands, although possessed by different nations. Little attention is paid to literature or the arts. Commercial speculation absorbs all the faculties of the mind; and gain is the only object of pursuit. The disproportionate numbers of the two sexes, and the long prevalence of negro slavery, have unavoidably contributed to the contamination of morals, and to the introduction of licentiousness, as well as of indolence. The abolition of the African trade bids fair to produce a beneficial change in the structure of West Indian society, more favourable to industry and morality, than the former state of things.

END OF DR. RAMSAY'S HISTORY.

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SUPPLEMENT.

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SUPPLEMENT.

INTRODUCTION.

THE lamented death of Dr. Ramsay prevented his bringing down the faithful and useful record, which is presented to the public in the preceding volumes, to a later period than the year 1808. Had his life been spared, no doubt can exist but that he would have continued the chain of his narrative to the memorable year 1815, in which a period was put to the ravages of war in every quarter of the globe. The winding up of the great drama of the French Revolution, and the close of the second war between these United States and Great Britain, serve to mark that year as an era in universal history; and it has been deemed advisable by the publishers of this edition, to pursue what it is probable was the design of the author, in continuing the history of Europe down to that period. Accuracy, the first duty of a compiler, has been studiously consulted in this Supplement, and if the narration be found sufficiently clear, and free from prejudices, the want of the less important qualities of ornament in style and diction, will, it is hoped, be overlooked.

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UNIVERSAL HISTORY

(CONTINUED.)

EUROPE.

SECTION I.

From the year 1808, *to the conclusion of the Austrian War of* 1809.

The treaty of Tilsit, with which the preceding part of this history terminated, was followed by a period of comparative peace on the European continent. The armies of Austria, Prussia, and Russia, had been successively defeated and dispersed by the great captain who at that time controlled the destinies of Europe, and, from his perhaps politic liberality, the two first of those powers had received the gift of an independent existence: independent at least in name, whatever proofs of humility and submission may have been required of them. Austria, with crippled forces and an impoverished treasury, saw herself surrounded on almost every side by the tributaries of her ancient rival. The battle of Jena had so effectually destroyed the energies of Prussia, and had at the same time so exalted the character of her conquerors, that both physical and moral causes seemed to rivet the chain of dependence upon that nation. With regard to Russia, the case, though in some respects different, was still essentially the same. Her hardy and superstitious barbarians had, after an obstinate contest, been routed by the disciplined soldiers of France; and her emperor, struck with the character, or duped by the artifices of Napoleon, had, after a personal interview with him, signed a treaty of peace and alliance, by which the continental politics of Russia were identified with those of France, and the same sys-

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tem adopted towards the commerce of England. The minor states of Germany composing the confederation of the Rhine, a powerful engine in the hands of the French monarch, enjoyed also, for some period after the sanguinary scenes of 1807, the blessings of tranquillity. Denmark, whose unoffending weakness, and impartial neutrality between the belligerents, ought rather to have excited respect and kindness, had, as we have seen in a preceding part of this work, been made the subject of one of the most unprincipled outrages of which the records of history make mention. The cruel and selfish policy of the British government had deprived her of her whole navy, and of the extensive stock of military munitions, which her prudent government had laid up for a season of danger. Taken by surprise, she had no power to resist, and the smoking ruins of her capital displayed the avarice and perfidy of that government which in every quarter of the globe has left desolation and destruction in its path. Sweden, governed by a monarch whose conduct gave rise to the belief that he suffered under a species of mental derangement, attempted, after the treaty of peace at Tilsit, and the plunder of Copenhagen, to make a stand against the whole power of France, and even ventured to enter the lists with Russia. With all the boldness, but without any of the talents of Charles XII, Gustavus Adolphus endeavoured to stir up a crusade against the French emperor, whose destruction he conceived was predicted in the scriptures, and required by our holy religion, and, with characteristic confidence, considered himself qualified for the station of leader of the enterprize. His visionary projects brought great distress and misery on his subjects, and would have terminated in the the ruin of Sweden, had they not fortunately been counteracted; while his versatile disposition and peculiar frame of mind prevented his receiving the confidence and support of any ally. Shortly after the treaty of Tilsit, both Russia and Denmark declared war upon Sweden, and the former power invaded Finland with a considerable force. The English government agreed, by treaty, to allow Gustavus a subsidy of twelve hundred thousand pounds sterling, and sent, in the month of May of 1808, a fleet and army to his

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support. A misunderstanding soon arose between the allies: Gustavus attempted to arrest the English commander, sir John Moore, who escaped to the shipping; and although a partial action was fought between some English and Russian ships of the line, nothing decisive was effected. The Russian army in the mean time gained ground in Finland, and Abo, its capital, fell into their hands. Universal discontent arose among the Swedes, which was not lessened by a knowledge which began to prevail of the mental characteristics of their monarch. A confederacy of the principal nobles was formed against him, and, by a bloodless and well-managed revolution, he was expelled from a throne for which he appeared in every respect unfitted. This event took place on the thirteenth of March, 1809. A diet being soon afterwards assembled at Stockholm, the duke of Sudermania, uncle to the late king, was chosen his successor, and assumed the title of Charles XIII.

The new monarch found it in vain to attempt the defence of Finland against the overwhelming power of Russia. Misfortune still attended the arms of Sweden, and peace was at length purchased by the sacrifice of that province. The relations of amity were soon afterwards re-established with France, by the treaty with which Swedish Pomerania was restored to its former rulers, and the government of Sweden consented to become a party to the "continental system," as it was called, which had for its object the exclusion of British manufactures.

War, however, still raged with universal violence in the south-western part of Europe. The peninsula was the theatre of a contest between an armed nation and a host of disciplined veterans; and all the horrors of an intestine conflict were experienced by the people of Spain. Here, where exactly a century before a similar game of ambition, of intrigue, and of warfare had been played by France and England, the same contest was renewed with equal vicissitudes of success and disappointment. The cause of the people, however, finally triumphed in the nineteenth, as it had done in the beginning of the eighteenth century. And it may be confidently asserted, that neither Philip V nor Ferdinand VII would have

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gained possession of the throne, had not the great mass of the community given them a thorough and active support.

The intrigues at the Spanish court previous to the nomination of Ferdinand VII; the detention of that monarch and his parents by Napoleon; the sudden and unanimous opposition of the Spanish people to the elevation of Joseph; the preparation of a military force by the provincial juntas, and the alliance with England; the surrender of a considerable French army, and the entrance of Joseph into the capital of the kingdom, have been narrated in a preceding volume*. We shall now take up the thread of the history from the latter event.

The arrival at Madrid of the "intrusive king," for thus he was styled by his subjects, took place on the same day that general Dupont surrendered his army to the patriots. No sooner was intelligence received of this event, than Joseph found himself under the necessity of retracing his steps. He accordingly quitted the capital on the 27th of July, and fell back to Burgos. Here the principal French army was stationed; but the operations of Palafox, Castanos, and Blake compelled it to retrograde still further: and a strong position was taken north of the Ebro, where it remained in expectation of reinforcements.

The British government, in the mean time, seizing eagerly upon the opportunity now presented to them of acquiring new allies, and of harassing their powerful opponent, inflamed by every means in their power the spirit of resistance in the Spanish people, and took immediate measures for affording them aid in men and money. One of their first steps was to set free a Spanish army, which, under the marquis de la Romana, had been drawn by Napoleon to the north of Germany. This force, in number about 8000, was brought off from the Danish isle of Funen, and landed on the northern coast of Spain. An expedition of about nine thousand men, under the command of sir Arthur Wellesley, since so much celebrated under the title of duke of Wellington, was

* Vol. vii, p. 80, &c.

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dispatched from Cork; and, after touching at Corunna and Oporto, proceeded to the Tagus. An insurrection similar to that of Spain had broken out in Portugal. The town of Oporto fell into the hands of the insurgents. The French force, under Junot, duke of Abrantes, was reduced to about 18,000 combatants, and the capital was threatened in different directions by the patriots, while the retreat of the main French army from Madrid had cut off all communication and support from the detachment in Portugal.

Under these circumstances, the British troops landed at Mondego bay. Their numbers by successive reinforcements were increased to about twenty thousand, and an additional force of ten thousand men, under sir John Moore, was on its way to their support. On the 16th of August, sir Arthur Wellesley attacked and drove back about six thousand French, under general Laborde. On the 21st, Junot, having collected together all his disposable force, which did not exceed nine thousand men, made a vigorous assault on the English army, three times as powerful, and posted on the strong heights of Vimiera. After an obstinate contest, the French army drew off in good order, without molestation from the English; and on the succeeding day a convention was signed at Cintra, by which it was agreed that the French army should evacuate Portugal, and be transported to France in British vessels, with all its baggage and munitions. No provision incapacitated the emigrating army from serving again in the same war. These honourable terms, obtained by an army inferior by two-thirds in number to its opponents, in a hostile country, and cut off from supplies and assistance, afford a strong proof of the superior skill of the French general, and of the respect with which his talents, and the bravery of his troops, were held by the British.

The opposition to his plans in regard to the Spanish throne, appears to have been somewhat unexpected to the French emperor. When the intelligence of the capture of general Dupont, and the retreat of Joseph from Madrid reached France, he saw that it was necessary for him to repair by his presence the military faults that had been committed. Having obtained a senatus consultum for the levy of 160,000

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men, he set out to a congress at Erfurth about the middle of October, and with his usual expedition transacted the business for which it was assembled, dispatched his legions across the Pyrenees, and on the 8th of November raised his imperial standard at Vittoria. The army of the north-west under Blake, amounting to about thirty thousand men, had been routed previously to the arrival of Napoleon. That of Castanos, about sixty thousand in number, was posted on the left bank of the Aragon. On the 23d of November a general action took place at Tudela, in which the patriot army was completely defeated by Napoleon, with the loss of ten thousand men.

In the space of three weeks after his arrival in Spain, the French emperor found himself without any organized opponents; the armies of Blake and Castanos having been in a great measure broken up by successive defeats. On the 4th of December, little further opposition having been made to his progress, he entered Madrid. The British army, now commanded by sir John Moore, had after the convention of Cintra advanced into Spain, where it was joined by a force under general Baird, who had landed at Corunna. The two corps now moved forward towards Madrid, when the news of the destruction of the Spanish armies compelled the English general to fall back. He was closely pursued by marshal Soult with about twenty thousand men, and, after a retreat of great hardship and suffering, led his troops to Corunna. Here, on the 16th of January, 1809, a battle took place between the two armies, the force of which was probably about equal. Both sides fought with great resolution. The English commander was killed, and the French troops were drawn off without much loss. At midnight the English army were embarked on board their transports with little molestation. Thus ended an expedition, which cost the British nation immense sums of money, a large number of men, and a brave and skilful general.

For some time after this period, the French armies lay in a state of comparative inaction. In the month of January, Napoleon, foreseeing a breach with the Austrian court, set out from Spain with the imperial guard on his return to Pa-

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ris. Saragossa however, the defence of which had excited so much admiration, surrendered to the invaders on the 14th of February. After the capture of Corunna, marshal Soult bent his steps to Portugal, and took possession of Oporto on the 29th of March. A strong British army still remained in Portugal, and was about this time reinforced by a body of troops under sir Arthur Wellesley, who assumed the chief command, while a considerable force of the natives was disciplined and organized by the English general Beresford. These circumstances, together with the consequences of the Austrian war, obliged marshal Soult to retreat through the province of Leon. General Wellesley having formed a junction with the army of Cuesta, advanced soon afterwards into Spain. On the 27th of July, near Talavera de la Reyna, he was attacked by marshal Victor, and succeeded, after a hard struggle, in maintaining his ground, with the loss of six thousand men. The number of the allies on this occasion amounted to sixty thousand: the French were little more than half as numerous. This victory, if victory it might be called, where the numbers were so disproportioned, and the loss of the allies so great, was followed by the precipitate retreat of general Wellesley into Portugal, leaving behind him all his sick and wounded at the mercy of the enemy. For his services on this occasion, general Wellesley was created by the British government viscount Wellington, of Talavera, and received the thanks of the parliament, and a pension of two thousand pounds sterling per annum.

In the north-eastern part of Spain, defeat and disaster followed the armies of the patriots. At Belchite, Blake was attacked and routed by Suchet, with the loss of nine pieces of cannon and three thousand men. In August, Venegas was defeated with great slaughter by a French corps under Sebastiani. On the 19th of November, a signal action was fought at Ocana between a Spanish army of fifty thousand men under the marquis of Ariezaga, who succeeded Venegas in command, and a French corps under king Joseph. A decisive victory was obtained by the latter, the consequence of which was the reduction of Cordova and Seville, leaving a free access to Cadiz. Gerona, after a long resistance, capi-

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tulated on the 16th of December; and thus, at the close of 1809, the adherents of Ferdinand had scarcely an army left in the field, or a fortress untaken. The junta, driven from Seville, betook themselves to Cadiz, and, sensible that they had lost the public confidence, issued a proclamation for the convocation of a national cortes at the beginning of the ensuing year.

The flames of war were now again kindled in Germany. For some time previous to its actual breaking out, politicians predicted a rupture between Austria and France. The peace of Presburg had left the former reduced in power, but still strong enough to be a dangerous enemy, and burning with shame, and a desire to retrieve her misfortunes. She had reluctantly declared war against England, and her hostilities with that power were throughout merely nominal. She saw with alarm the intimate union between Russia and France, and the growing importance of the confederation of the Rhine. She assiduously husbanded her resources, and appeared to wait only for a favourable moment to plunge again into hostilities.

The opportunity was offered by the presence of Napoleon with a large part of his force in Spain, to increase the levies of Austrian troops; and on the 8th of April war was formally declared. The whole Austrian army is said to have consisted of nine corps of thirty or forty thousand men each. On the 13th of April Napoleon left Paris, and arrived at Donawert on the 17th, where he fixed his head quarters. On the 20th and 22d two battles were fought, one at Avensburg against the archduke John; the other at Eckmuhl against the archduke Charles, in which the Austrians were defeated, with the loss of forty thousand men. The archduke Charles then retreated, and was pursued with his usual rapidity by the French emperor, who took possession of Vienna on the 10th of May.

The archduke Charles had retreated along the left bank of the Danube, and by assiduous exertion collected an army of about one hundred thousand men, with which he fixed his head quarters on the 16th at Engersdorf, on the road to Brunn. On the 19th, the French engineers having construct-

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ed bridges across the river, at a spot where its stream is broken by islands, the whole army passed over, and took post on the left bank; the right wing resting on the village of Essling, and the left on the village of Aspern. In this position the archduke determined to attack them. On the 21st and 22d of May were fought two battles, which, whether we consider the talents of the opposite commanders, the amount of force displayed, the obstinacy of the struggle, or the loss of lives it occasioned, have few parallels in history. After a series of successes and reverses, and the most unexampled carnage, the French retreated in the night of the 22d, and took a position on the island of Lobau. Their loss, including some of their most distinguished officers, is said to have amounted to upwards of forty thousand in killed and wounded, exclusive of prisoners. The Austrians acknowledged to have lost upwards of twenty thousand in killed.

After this repulse, the first which the French emperor had ever received in the field, both armies lay stationary for some weeks. The time, however, was not idly spent. Considerable reinforcements were received on either side, and the French employed themselves in re-constructing the bridges between the island and the left bank of the Danube. At length, on the night of the 4th of July, their whole army crossed over, and on the 5th appeared in order of battle on the left flank of the entrenched Austrian army. The day was spent in manœuvring, and, in consequence of superior generalship, the archduke Charles was compelled to abandon his entrenchments, and meet his enemy in the open plain. Near to Wagram, on the 6th of July, was fought the celebrated battle of that name, in which, according to the French bulletins, from three to four hundred thousand men, with from twelve to fifteen hundred pieces of cannon, were brought into the field. The attacks of Napoleon were as usual directed against the centre of his enemy, which the archduke had injudiciously weakened. That part having been driven back, the wings were compelled to retreat, and a total and irretrievable rout soon took place. Upwards of twenty thousand prisoners are said to have fallen into the hands of the victors, and the whole Austrian loss was rated by the French

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at sixty thousand men. The latter admitted a loss of upwards of five thousand, and probably the number was not less than double that amount.

The result of the battle of Wagram put an end to the hopes of the Austrian government. On the twelfth, an armistice was agreed to, by which all the strong posts were given up to the French. On the fifteenth of October, the definitive treaty of peace was signed. Austria ceded all her territory on the Adriatic to France, and portions of that in Germany to the Rhenish confederacy, the king of Saxony, and the emperor of Russia. The emperor Francis agreed also to acknowledge Joseph Napoleon as king of Spain, to accede to the continental system, and to break off all intercourse with Great Britain.

During these occurrences, an insurrection against the French system took place in Saxony, Westphalia, and Hanover. The revolt was headed by the duke of Brunswick, but was of limited extent and short duration. The Tyrolese mountaineers, also, who had been transferred to the power of Bavaria, took advantage of the rupture between Austria and France, to break out into a general insurrection, which was for some time successful. The treaty of peace between these powers, however, stipulated that no succour should be given by Austria to her former subjects, and a large force being sent against them, they were compelled, after a gallant struggle, to submit. Their leader Andrew Hoffer, who displayed all the virtues of a patriot, was taken and executed.

Thus terminated the third war which Austria had undertaken against the French since the period of their revolution. Every previous contest had left that empire defeated and shorn of its dominions, and it certainly was now in the power of France to have reduced her to the condition of a province, or so to have crippled her strength as to leave her no longer in a condition to be formidable. The moderation of the emperor Napoleon was, however, equally remarkable and unexpected; and he had full occasion afterwards to regret the exercise of so much forbearance. With the war of 1809, terminated the career of his glory in Germany. After this

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period he was destined no more to return to France with the splendor and fame of a conqueror.

During the progress of the Austrian war, an expedition was fitted out from England, which from its magnitude excited general attention, and promised at one time to have a material influence on the issue of that contest. It consisted of upwards of 40,000 men, who were embarked on board a fleet of thirty-nine sail of the line and thirty frigates, accompanied by numerous gun-boats and other vessels. The land forces were under the command of the earl of Chatham, a son of the great statesman of that name, but whose conduct on this occasion furnished a strong proof that talents are not always as hereditary as titles. The principal object of the expedition appears to have been to gain possession of Flushing, and the islands at the entrance of the Scheldt, and to destroy the French men of war and dock-yards at Antwerp. On the fifteenth of August, the island of Walcheren surrendered, after a stout resistance, but the assemblage of large bodies of troops prevented any attempt upon the continent. The British troops lay inactive for a considerable period, exposed to the contagious fevers of that spot. In the middle of September, lord Chatham with a part of the army returned to England. Of those that remained, the greater proportion was swept off by disease, and the island was finally abandoned on the twenty-third of December. This expedition, prepared, and continued at a vast expense of money and lives, became the subject of ridicule to the French nation, but was approved of, after considerable discussion, by the pliant majorities of the British parliament.

Although unsuccessful in its European operations, the English government continued to add to the foreign possessions of that country by conquest or otherwise. In the course of the year 1809 the French colonies of Cayenne, Martinique, and Senegal, and the Spanish city of St. Domingo surrendered to the British arms. The islands of Zante, Cephalonia, and others were also taken possession of, and the government of the sept-insular republic, as it was called, was restored.

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SECTION II.

From the end of the Austrian War, to the commencement of hostilities with Russia, 1810 *to* 1812.

Peace having been restored by the treaty of Vienna, nothing but the opposition of the Spaniards to the king imposed on them by Napoleon, seemed to interfere with his great political projects. Germany enjoyed a calm, which, although it was the repose of slavery, appeared still preferable to the scene of carnage and horror recently exhibited on her plains. In Italy the power of France was yet more firmly established. The papal territories had been recently annexed to the kingdom of Italy. Rome was declared the second city of the empire, and the holy pontiff, who had ventured in the nineteenth century a feeble sentence of excommunication against the emperor, was sent a prisoner to Avignon, where he was stripped of his external dignity, and deprived of all communication with his church. The celebrated tribunal of the inquisition was abolished, the temporal power of the clergy abrogated, and various other measures in accordance with the genius of the age, were adopted by the French government.

The increase of the French dominions in Italy was followed by the annexation of the seven Dutch provinces to the empire. Under different names, this country had partaken of the changes, and followed the fortunes of France, since the revolution of 1793. Originally called the Seven United Provinces, it received afterwards the appellation of the Batavian Republic, and when, in process of time, democracy became unpopular with the versatile dispositions of the French people, their more cold and phlegmatic neighbours were compelled to follow their example, and receive the present of a monarch in the person of Louis Bonaparte. The system of Napoleon was adopted, as far as it was practicable to compel an industrious and commercial people to a renunciation of their ancient and approved mode of gaining a sub-

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sistence. Holland sent forth her conscripts to swell the ranks of the imperial forces, but all the efforts of her government were insufficient, although aided by large bodies of French *douaniers* and military troops, to destroy entirely her remaining commerce. British manufactures and colonial produce still found their way into her ports. Her new king, although a brother of the French emperor, possessed none of his genius or energy, and appeared far better fitted for the quiet walks of private life, than for the giddy eminence to which he had been—it now appears unwillingly—raised. Napoleon, therefore, determined to take the business of the government into his own hands, and, with as little respect to the wishes of the people, as he had displayed in the change of their form of government, he compelled his brother to descend from the throne, and annihilated by a simple decree the independent existence of Holland. In the month of July, 1810, the seven provinces were formally annexed to the French empire. The next object in the progress of *annexation*, to use the imperial phrase, was the Hanse towns. After having suffered severely from contributions and the destruction of their commerce, these once opulent and flourishing cities were converted into provinces of France, by an ordinance which declared, "the necessity for the junction of the mouths of the Scheldt, the Meuse, the Rhine, the Ems, the Weser, and the Elbe, to the French empire."

With a more extended empire than Europe had witnessed since the days of Charlemagne, with a military force before which the armies of every other nation had fallen, and with a personal reputation to which nothing greater is found in history, the emperor Napoleon found yet something wanting to complete the lustre of his diadem. A matrimonial alliance with one of the ancient families in the circle of European kings would, it was supposed, lend permanence to the new dynasty, besides giving reason to hope for personal issue, of which with his then empress he was deprived. These considerations, if we may believe the courtly records of the empire, had their due weight with the patriotic Josephine, and accordingly, by mutual agreement, a sentence of

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divorce was pronounced in legal form, about the close of the year 1809; the continuance of the imperial title with an ample revenue having been decreed to her.

The other scenes of the drama soon followed. In the month of February of the succeeding year it was announced, that a marriage contract had been signed with the princess Maria Louisa, daughter of the emperor of Austria; and a few weeks afterwards, the ancient dynasties of Europe were scandalized at the spectacle of a union of a descendant of the house of Hapsburgh with one who from the station of a private gentleman had raised himself to the throne by the mere force of his genius. Nor was the connection more agreeable to a considerable portion of the French people. The men of the revolution, who had attached themselves to his cause, looked upon the measure as displaying too great a leaning towards the practices of legitimate monarchs, and many feared the influence which this new Cleopatra might possess over his mind. One of the wishes of the emperor was in due time gratified, by the birth of the king of Rome; but, whatever ideas he may have entertained with regard to the effects of his connexion with the house of Austria upon his possession of the throne of France, his subsequent misfortunes add another to the thousand proofs in history, of the little influence such alliances possess upon the policy of monarchs.

The war in Spain and Portugal was in the mean time conducted with vigour on the part of the invaders, and, before the close of the year 1810, the cause of Ferdinand seemed totally lost. The battle of Ocana had left no force in the field able to make head against the French, and the city of Cadiz, the place of refuge of the junta, was invested by marshal Victor. Within the town, the most vigorous preparations were made for defence. The fortifications were repaired, all persons capable of bearing arms were enrolled, and a reinforcement of British troops were admitted into the city. The junta, which had become unpopular in Spain, soon after the abandonment of Seville, conveyed the government to a regency of five persons.

In the southern and eastern parts of Spain, the war was

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attended with alternate success and defeat. General Lacy, with a body of patriots, defeated a French force of 6000 men, and a sanguinary contest subsisted for some time between the mountaineers of Grenada and the invaders. On the 20th of February, an obstinate engagement took place between a French army under general Souham, and a Spanish force under general O'Donnell, which resulted in the defeat of the latter, with great slaughter. The towns of Hostalric, Lerida and Tortosa, soon afterwards fell into the hands of the invaders.

The great object of the French, however, in this campaign was to obtain possession of Portugal. The army destined for this purpose consisted of about fifty thousand men, and was placed under the command of marshal Massena. That of the allies, under lord Wellington, is said to have amounted to nearly eighty thousand, of whom thirty thousand were British. The plan of the English general appears to have been to retire slowly before the invaders, devastating the country at their approach, until he reached the vicinity of Lisbon, where a strong line of entrenchments was prepared for his defence. The fortresses of Ciudad Rodrigo and Almeida were in possession of the allies, and these it was necessary to possess, before the French could advance into Portugal. The first was invested by marshal Ney about the middle of June, and sustained a vigorous cannonade until the 10th of July, when the garrison surrendered at discretion. Almeida was next invested, and the trenches opened before it in the middle of August. Although garrisoned by upwards of 5000 men, it surrendered by capitulation on the 27th. After the capture of this post, lord Wellington concentrated the different divisions of his army, and began his retreat towards Lisbon. On the 21st of September he took a position on the Sierra de Busaco, where, on the 27th, he was vigorously attacked by the French army. The principal efforts of Massena were directed against the centre of his opponent, but finding that the nature of the British position presented insuperable obstacles to success in that quarter, he made a detour to the right, and gaining the enemy's flank, lord Wellington was compelled to retreat. No further contest took place, and

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the British troops were firmly established on their impregnable lines of Torres Vedras.

On reconnoitring the British posts, Massena determined that it was in vain to attempt carrying them by assault, and contented himself with fortifying his own position and collecting provisions, which began now to grow scarce, in consequence of the measures adopted by lord Wellington. Parties of Portuguese militia scoured the country, and intercepted his communications, while the British army, having the sea in their rear, were amply supplied with munitions and reinforcements from England. Things remained in this state, neither party taking any decisive step for several months.

At length, finding that no prospect existed of inducing his antagonist to meet him in the field, and being reduced to extremities in consequence of the want of provisions, marshal Massena was compelled to give orders for a retreat. On the night of the 5th of March, 1811, he quitted his strong camp at Santarem, and fell back leisurely towards the Mondego. Lord Wellington displayed no great eagerness to pursue him. The prudent dispositions of the French commander prevented his losing many of his men, or much of his baggage, and in different skirmishes the British troops were repulsed with loss. About the beginning of April, Massena entered Spain, and Wellington laid siege to Almeida. With the hope of relieving this place, the former collected all his disposable force, and on the 6th of May made an attack upon the British army, strongly posted at Fuentes de Onoro, and greatly superior in numbers. A variety of evolutions took place on each side, and the contest was maintained with no little effusion of blood till evening, when marshal Massena drew off his forces, and crossed the Augida. Almeida was now left to its fate, and the capture of its garrison was deemed inevitable. On the night of the 10th, however, they blew up the works, and silently passing through the blockading posts, without being perceived, reached the main army on the 11th.

While these affairs were taking place in the north, the province of Estremadura had been the theatre of some important operations. Early in the year 1811, marshal Soult,

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with an army of about twenty thousand men, after having defeated a Spanish force of equal numbers under general Mendizabal, and captured upwards of six thousand men, laid siege to Badajoz. This important place surrendered on the 11th of March, and the garrison, more than 7000 in number, were made prisoners of war. In the next month, marshal Beresford, having collected a considerable force of British and Portuguese, advanced towards Badajoz, and established a blockade of the place.

On the news of this event, marshal Soult left Seville, and advanced to engage the allies. The latter were posted at Albuera, and on the 16th of May were vigorously assaulted by the French army. The issue was long doubtful; but the superior numbers of the allies at length prevailed, and the French fell back in some confusion. The force of the latter was about twenty thousand men, that of Beresford exceeded forty thousand. The loss was very great: upwards of six thousand men having been killed or wounded on each side. On the next day, marshal Soult commenced his retreat, and the siege of Badajoz was again resumed. Two successive assaults were made on the 6th and 9th of June, which were bravely repulsed by the garrison; and lord Wellington, who had now taken the command of this force in person, soon afterwards relinquished the siege, and with his whole army went into cantonments in Lower Beira.

The siege of Cadiz continued during the year 1811 to attract attention, being conducted with great vigour by the assailants, while the place was defended with equal ability by the Spaniards. In the beginning of March, a body of about 15,000 men, English and Spaniards, under general Graham, landed at Algesiras, and occupied the heights of Barossa. In this position they were attacked by a French force of 6000 men, and, after a short but obstinate contest, were compelled to retreat to their ships. The French lost a great number of men, an eagle, and two generals, but had the glory of having beaten back more than double their numbers. The chief operation in Catalonia was the siege and reduction of Tarragona. Under the command of Marshal Suchet, the French invested this unfortunate town about the end of April. The inhabi-

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tants made a gallant and most obstinate defence, by which the siege was protracted until the 28th of June. On that day the place was carried by assault, and the most shocking scenes of massacre and pillage took place. Suchet then advanced into Valencia, and, after defeating Blake, on the 25th of October, captured the strong fortress of Murviedro. The city of Valencia was then invested, and, although defended by upwards of eighteen thousand troops, surrendered in a few weeks.

Early in the year 1812, lord Wellington, having received considerable reinforcements, broke up from his cantonments, and moved into Spain. His first measure was the siege of Ciudad Rodrigo. On the 19th of January the place was carried by storm. The garrison, which had sustained severe losses, submitted, to the number of 1700 men. Badajoz was next assailed. On the 16th of March the investment was complete, and, practicable breaches having been effected, an assault was made on the 6th of April. After performing prodigies of valour, the garrison were compelled to surrender. The total loss of the allied army in this affair was equal to the whole number of the French, which did not exceed five thousand men.

After this event, the British commander moved towards Salamanca, where marshal Marmont was posted with considerable force. Having received information that reinforcements were on their way to join his opponent, Wellington determined to attack him. On the 22d of June, a general engagement took place between the two armies, which at the close of the day terminated in the defeat of the French, with great loss. Two eagles and eleven pieces of cannon were taken by the victors; and to the severe wound received by marshal Marmont, the French attribute the misfortunes of the day. The allies, however, are said to have amounted to upwards of eighty thousand men, while the French force did not exceed half that number.

Lord Wellington did not fail to improve the advantages he had gained. The intelligence of the defeat at Salamanca had compelled king Joseph to abandon Madrid, which was entered by the allies on the 12th of August. Another impor-

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tant effect produced by this victory, was the desertion by the French of the blockade of Cadiz. On the 24th of August the immense forts and batteries which had been erected for the purposes of the siege were destroyed, and the besiegers retired, leaving behind them a numerous train of artillery. On the 1st of September, lord Wellington quitted Madrid, and followed the retreating army towards Burgos. Through this city the French retired in the night, leaving a considerable garrison in the castle, which was defended by an exterior line of works. After making some breaches in the fortifications, the English attempted to carry them by storm, but were repulsed with great loss. The French army having been now reinforced and united, lord Wellington raised the siege, and commenced a retreat upon the Douro. He was immediately followed by the French, who pressed close upon his rear, and occasioned great losses to the allies. Nothing could have been more disorderly or licentious than the conduct of the English troops in this retreat, which was marked by a total want of discipline and the most savage excesses towards the unfortunate inhabitants. Madrid, having been evacuated by the allies, was again entered by the French on the 1st of November. On the 24th of that month, lord Wellington reached the Portuguese frontier, and distributed his troops into cantonments.

While the Spanish nation was thus struggling to throw off the yoke of the invaders, it availed itself of the interregnum in the executive power, to recur to its ancient constitution. The general cortes or congress of the nation, which had been convoked by the supreme junta, assembled at Cadiz in the month of September, 1810. From its outset it displayed a spirit of freedom and independence, worthy of the best days of Spain. The liberty of the press was established by law; a redress of grievances was declared necessary; and various other measures adopted indicative of a disposition to reform the state. In the beginning of the year 1811, the members of this assembly issued a proclamation, declaring that they would not recognize any act of Ferdinand VII, while deprived of his personal freedom. But their most important transaction, and that for which they will for ever deserve the

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respect of mankind, was the formation of a written constitution, founded on the principles of free government. This great measure was adopted on the 18th of March, 1812. It is painful to reflect how few of the wise and good men by whom this charter was framed escaped the proscription of their ungrateful and wretched monarch.

The period comprised in this section was distinguished by some important events in the political history of Great Britain. About the close of the year 1810, the king, who had twenty years before been visited by an attack of mental derangement, gave unequivocal indications of a return of the same disorder with greater violence. The parliament, having been summoned to take the subject into consideration, passed an act for vesting the government of the kingdom in a regency, composed of the prince of Wales, the heir apparent of the crown. Certain restrictions were annexed to the office for a limited period, which expired in 1812, when the prince regent assumed the full power of the monarch. No change of ministry however took place, and the political system of Mr. Pitt, administered by his feeble disciples, continued to maintain the ascendancy in England. The same course of measures, in regard to the internal politics of Great Britain, was still pursued. The unfortunate catholics of Ireland, who had hailed the accession of the prince of Wales as opening a brighter prospect on their cause, were doomed to have their hopes again blighted by the impolitic bigotry of the British parliament. Another remarkable event was the assassination of the prime minister, Mr. Percival, who was killed by a person of the name of Bellingham, while on his way to the parliament, on the 11th of May, 1812. Private disappointment was supposed to have produced the act, which was justly censured by all parties in that country. In a general point of view, the abstraction of this minister from the administration of affairs was of no disservice to the interests of England. His adherence to the plans he had formed, was as obstinate as those plans were injudicious. He mistook the true interests of his country in its European policy, plunged it into a war with the United States by his celebrated orders in council, and alienated the affections of a great portion of

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the people of Ireland by his religious bigotry. An endeavour was made after his decease to procure a change in the ministry, but the attempt failed of success, and his former colleagues were continued.

Several important acquisitions of territory were made during this period by the British government, which appeared to proceed *pari passu* with that of France, in adding to its already enormous extent of possessions. Guadaloupe, the last of the French West India islands, was taken possession of in February, 1810. The isles of Bourbon and France, and the Dutch settlement of Amboyna, were also taken during that year. The island of Java fell into their hands in 1811. On the continent of Asia the old system of conquest and oppression was still pursued. The dominions of the East India Company were every year increased, and a pretext was never wanting for the dethronement of some unfortunate native prince, and the plunder and massacre of his subjects.

In the year 1810 an event took place in Sweden, which may be ranked among the most extraordinary changes of the time. The heir-apparent of the throne having expired suddenly, while reviewing a body of troops, the states of the kingdom assembled in the month of August for the purpose of choosing a successor. A variety of candidates presented themselves, but the choice fell upon the French marshal Bernadotte, prince of Ponte Corvo, who was elected by the general voice of all the orders. This unexpected result was supposed to be occasioned by the influence of the French emperor; but, whatever may be the fact, it is certain that the conduct of the new prince, after his election, displayed little attachment to the system or interests of his old master.

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SECTION III.

From the commencement of the Russian war to the battle of Leipsick. 1812, 1813.

In adopting the principles of Napoleon in regard to commerce, and pledging himself to an alliance with that monarch, the emperor Alexander appears not to have been sufficiently aware of the wants and habits of his subjects, and of the consequences to which the new system might lead. Trade was an object of considerable importance to Russia, and had been sedulously encouraged by all the successors of Peter the Great. With England especially an advantageous traffic had long been carried on. The commercial relations of the two countries were as old as the reign of queen Elizabeth, and had become, in the process of time, too firmly knit to be easily dissolved. The sudden stoppage, after the treaty of Tilsit, of a great source of wealth and prosperity to individuals, as well as of revenue to the nation, caused great distress and considerable discontent in Russia; and the nobility, the incomes from whose estates were sensibly reduced by the prohibition of traffic, joined in the general opposition to the measure. Influenced by these circumstances, the emperor determined upon a species of compromise, and in the month of December, 1810, issued a *ukase*, or edict, forbidding the introduction of British produce and manufactures into his dominions, except by special license and in neutral ships. Licenses were in consequence not unfrequently granted, and a considerable relaxation took place in other respects in the anti-commercial system.

To render the continental system, however, perfect as a weapon of hostility against England, it was necessary that it should be strictly enforced in all the maritime states of the continent. While one government remained, by which it was not rigidly executed, it became harmless, in consequence of the facilities of communication from that country to others.

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The proceedings in Russia were therefore regarded by Napoleon with regret and indignation, because they were in violation of a positive compact; and his remonstrances gradually assumed a hostile air. The emperor of Russia, on the other hand, might probably have been induced to comply with the wishes of France, had not the increasing encroachments of that power upon the territories of other sovereigns, some of them in violation of the same treaty of Tilsit, given him a justifiable ground of resistance. Besides the annexation of Holland and the Hanse towns to France, which we have already noticed, the dutchy of Oldenburg, belonging to a brother-in-law of Alexander, was taken possession of in 1811; a large French force still remained in Prussia; and in the month of January, 1812, Swedish Pomerania was occupied by a body of 20,000 French troops. In fine, it became evident, in the beginning of 1812, that war between these great powers was inevitable.

The preparations on each side were on a greater scale than have taken place at any period of modern warfare. Russia had since 1809 been engaged in hostilities with the Turks, in which she had met with various success. A considerable portion of her troops was occupied in this contest, and it was plainly her policy to disengage them, for the purposes of her approaching hostilities with France. Peace with Turkey was accordingly effected in August, 1812. The whole amount of the Russian armies, at the commencement of the campaign, did not greatly fall short of four hundred thousand men, who were amply provided with artillery, and all the munitions of war. This large force was however scattered in different parts, and it is not probable that more than two hundred thousand were assembled at one point. The force of the French has been variously estimated. It may safely be computed at not less than four hundred and fifty thousand men, including allies of all descriptions. Fifteen hundred pieces of cannon attended this immense host.

In the spring of 1812, treaties were concluded between France on one side, and Austria and Prussia on the other, by which the latter powers agreed to furnish a contingent of troops; and reciprocal guarantees of each others territories

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were entered into. On the 9th of May Napoleon left Paris, and arrived at Dresden on the 16th. Negociations were still continued between Russia and France, but without effect. On the 22d of June, a proclamation of the French emperor announced, that all attempts to preserve a good understanding had failed; and orders were given for passing the Niemen. Some accession of strength was at this time received by the French, in the meeting of a Polish diet at Warsaw, which declared the independence of that unfortunate country, and obtained the protection of Napoleon for the cause of their reviving prosperity.

The French now entered the Russian territories in nine divisions. The plan adopted by the emperor Alexander, who took the field in person at the commencement of the campaign, appears to have been purely a defensive one. The "first Russian army of the west," as it was called, under the command of general Barclay de Tolly, fell back on the approach of the invaders, devastating the country around them as much as possible. The first considerable stand was made at the city of Smolenskow, on the direct road to Moscow. On the 16th of August the French possessed themselves of the heights above this place. On the 17th at noon, the contest began, and, after a vigorous resistance, the Russians were driven into the city. At night the whole town was discovered to be in flames, and it was found the next morning that the Russians had made good their retreat.

The invaders continued to advance in the direction of Moscow, and the emperor Alexander determined to make an effort to save this important city. For this purpose the main body of the Russian army, amounting to about one hundred and thirty thousand men, under the command of general Kutousoff, took a strong position near the village of Moskwa. Here they were attacked on the 7th of September, by the French army, of equal numbers, commanded by Napoleon in person. Seldom has a more obstinate or sanguinary conflict been described by the pen of a historian. It continued without intermission from six in the morning until night. Upwards of thirty thousand men are said to have been killed or wounded on each side. The palm of victory

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was claimed by both parties, but the retreat of the Russians the next day, and the unmolested advance of their opponents, leave no doubt by which the essential advantages were gained.

On the 14th of August the French army entered Moscow. With this memorable day terminated the hitherto unbroken series of glory and triumph that had attended the arms of Napoleon. Fortune, who had previously attended his footsteps in every part of his career, seemed now to delight in showering calamities upon him. Heretofore we have seen him triumphant as a soldier and monarch, elevating himself to the throne of a great empire, and adding to his own glory and that of his country in every campaign. Henceforward we must behold him the victim of defeat and disaster in every shape, deserted by his allies, deprived of his family and of his crown, a prisoner, and an exile.

Of the capture and destruction of Moscow, very different accounts have been given. The generally received belief is, that for the purpose of depriving the French of a place for winter quarters, the governor caused the city to be set on fire. Whatever may have been the cause, the result was in the last degree injurious to the hopes of the invaders. Moscow was no longer tenantable, and Napoleon, who, presuming on his past experience, and the terror of his arms, had expected to dictate the terms of peace from the ancient capitol of the czars, now finding the Russians inflexible in their opposition, determined upon a retreat, which ought to have been made long before. In this resolution he was confirmed by the news of a defeat given to the king of Naples, as he was advancing with reinforcements from Smolenskow. On the 19th of October, the French army quitted Moscow, and began to retrace their steps to the Niemen. Hardly had they commenced their retreat when winter set in, with all the horrors of a Russian climate. It is not in the power of language to paint the sufferings endured by this once splendid and triumphant army. Worn down by fatigue, hunger, and cold, and closely pressed by the regular troops of their enemy, and by myriads of savage and unrelenting Cossacks, who hovered round them, they fell by thousands along the high-way, or

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attempted to make a stand only to be cut to pieces by the overwhelming force of the Russians. Amid all this disaster and suffering, the native courage of the French, and the skill and magnanimity of their great leader, shone strikingly conspicuous. It is beyond the scope of this summary to enter into the details, multiplied as they are, of this campaign. It is sufficient to say, that after a series of losses and calamities unparalleled in history, the remains of the French army reached the Niemen on the 14th of December, and crossed it at the same spot at which they had passed six months before, flushed with the anticipations of glory and success. Their total losses in this memorable campaign have not been precisely ascertained, but it is believed that not more than fifty thousand of the whole allied force escaped capture or destruction. The Russian official accounts boasted of having taken upwards of one hundred and eighty thousand officers and soldiers, and eleven hundred and thirty-one pieces of cannon. Napoleon escaped unhurt. On the 5th of December he left his army at Wilna, and proceeded rapidly to Paris, where he arrived at midnight of the 18th.

The misfortunes of the French did not end with the evacuation of Russia. Animated with their recent successes, the Russian troops, attended by the formidable Cossacks, advanced into Prussia and Poland, driving before them the emaciated remains of the invaders. The effects of the French reverses upon other powers began now to exhibit themselves. The Prussian troops, which, by the treaty of the preceding spring, were to assist the French as allies, had chiefly acted on the coast of the Baltic, and been employed in the siege of Riga. On the retreat of marshal Macdonald from that place, the Russian general Wittgenstein, advancing along the Niemen, succeeded in cutting off his communication with a Prussian corps of fifteen thousand men, under the command of general D'Yorck. On the following day, the Prussian general entered into a negociation, and on the 30th of December a convention was signed, by which it was agreed that the Prussian force should retire within their dominions, and remain neutral during the remainder of the campaign. The army of Macdonald was by this defection reduced to six

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thousand men. By a series of masterly manœuvres, he succeeded in effecting his retreat into Dantzic. Konigsberg was entered by the Russians on the 6th of January. The Prussians every where received them as friends. At Konigsberg a regency was established in the name of the king of Prussia. A proclamation was issued, calling upon the people to come forward for the rescue of their country; and a patriotic army, as it was called, was established, of which general D'Yorck, who had now openly joined the Russians, took the command.

The king of Prussia was thus placed in a peculiar situation. His capital was in the hands of the French, but his people appeared clamorous for a war with their late allies, and he himself could not but perceive that the moment was arrived to retrieve his losses, and regain his rank among monarchs. In this state of things, he suddenly withdrew from Potsdam, and removed to Breslaw. He there issued a proclamation, summoning his subjects to take up arms in defence of their king and country, but without specifying against whom they were to be employed.

The Russians, in the mean time, continued to advance. On the 8th of February, Warsaw was entered by general Miloradovitch. Dantzic and Thorn were invested, and the Austrians, having concluded an unlimited truce, withdrew into Galicia. The king of Prussia now came forward, and offered himself as a mediator between the belligerents. On the 15th of February, he proposed an armistice, on the condition that the Russians should retire behind the Vistula, and the French behind the Elbe, leaving Prussia and all her fortresses free from foreign occupation. The proposal was immediately rejected by the French. An equivocal answer was returned by Alexander, who professed sentiments of great attachment to Prussia. Frederick William then determined to adopt decisive measures. On the 22d of February, a treaty of alliance offensive and defensive was formed with Russia, and in an energetic proclamation the people of Prussia were informed, that no medium was left between war and an inglorious ruin.

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Berlin was evacuated by the French on the 3d of March, and entered by the Russians on the following day. Hamburgh fell into the power of the latter on the 18th, and its garrison, together with the troops that had occupied Swedish Pomerania, were made prisoners in an attempt to join the main French army. The king of Saxony, who adhered to the cause of Napoleon, quitted his capital on the approach of the Russians, a body of whom took possession of that part of the city on the right bank of the Elbe.

About this period Sweden added herself to the increasing confederacy against France. The political relations between these two powers had for some time been in an unsettled state. Sweden was either unable or unwilling to comply with the requisitions of Napoleon in regard to British commerce, and, although she had declared war against that country in 1811, it was more in name than in effect. The encroachments of the French emperor produced a spirit of opposition in the crown prince, as well as in the people, which led to a treaty of peace with England, concluded about the period of Napoleon's advance into Russia. His reverses induced a more decided step. In March, 1813, a treaty of alliance offensive and defensive was entered into between the courts of Stockholm and London, by which Sweden bound herself to employ a corps of thirty thousand men under the crown prince against France, and to grant to Great Britain the right of entrepôt in certain ports for the term of twenty years. The consideration for these services was the annexation of Norway to Sweden; a measure subsequently effected by the aid of British fleets, in opposition to the earnest remonstrances, and violent resistance of the unfortunate inhabitants. The enormity of this act, and the unrighteous manner in which it was carried into execution, ought to have consigned its authors to perpetual infamy. Denmark, which had been already robbed of her navy by Great Britain, was now doomed to witness the dismemberment of her territory, and the deliverance of her brave and generous subjects to the oppression of their hereditary enemies. The partition of Poland was not more morally flagitious, or more dangerous

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as an example, than this outrage, which, it ought to be remembered, was perpetrated by men who pretended to be fighting for the liberties and happiness of mankind.

The emperor Napoleon was employed, in the mean while, in recruiting his forces, and preparing vigorously for another campaign. He was received on his return from Russia with the accustomed tokens of respect and admiration, and found the senate still pliable to his will. A conscription of three hundred and fifty thousand men was placed at his disposal, and the most strenuous efforts were made in all quarters to repair the losses incurred on the fatal retreat. Men enough were found, but they were not the veterans of Marengo, Austerlitz, and Friedland. Most of these had perished, and the superb body of cavalry, the finest and most efficient perhaps that the world had ever seen, was almost totally destroyed. The new army, however, was still formidable, and consisted of twelve corps, besides the imperial guards. Their march was directed so as to form a junction near Jena, and upon the Saale. Having caused the empress to be declared regent during his absence, Napoleon left Paris on the 15th of April.

The allied armies of Russians and Prussians, amounting to about two hundred thousand men, had beeen for some time concentrating near Leipsic, the sovereign of each country being present with his troops. On the 25th the emperor of France took the command of his own army, in number about one hundred and seventy thousand men. On the 2d of May he was attacked by the allied troops in the plains of Lutzen. The combat was long and obstinately contested. Victory was claimed by both parties, but the retreat of the allies on the succeeding day, and the advance of the French to the Elbe, shew that the result was in favour of the latter. At Dresden Napoleon was joined by the king of Saxony with his troops. On the 19th, another sanguinary battle took place at Bautzen, in which the French were superior in numbers. The allies fell back with great loss, but in good order. They were pursued by the French, who advanced through Silesia towards the Oder.

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The emperor of Austria could not remain insensible to the important operations that were taking place around him. The greatest exertions were made to place his armies on a respectable establishment, and he saw that the period was arrived, in which his interposition, backed by an imposing military force, might settle the affairs of Europe on an equitable footing. With this view, he offered himself as a mediator between the belligerents. The proposal was accepted by all parties, and an armistice was concluded on the fourth of June, preparatory to a congress to be holden at Prague, in order to a general pacification. Plenipotentiaries from all the powers accordingly assembled at Prague, but the negociations proceeded so slowly, that a prolongation of the armistice became necessary, which continued it to the tenth of August. It was plainly seen, however, that no prospect of peace existed. Each party, therefore, exerted itself in preparing for a renewal of the contest. The Austrian government, especially, adopted such vigorous measures, as left no doubt of its intention to take a leading part in future transactions.

At length, on the eleventh of August, the day after the termination of the armistice, a formal declaration of war on the part of Austria against France was issued, which was followed by the promulgation of treaties with Russia and Prussia.

Hostilities now recommenced, with this important addition to the strength of the allies, who so far succeeded in their efforts, after a series of engagements, as to force their opponents to withdraw into Dresden. During several months the French engineers had been occupied in adding to the fortifications of this place. It was defended by 130,000 men, under the command of Napoleon. Notwithstanding these obstacles to success, the allies determined upon an assault. This took place on the twenty-seventh, and terminated in the repulse of the assailants with great slaughter. On the succeeding day, Napoleon led out his troops, supported by an immense train of artillery, and an obstinate engagement ensued. The allies were again defeated with considerable loss. Among the killed was the celebrated general Moreau, who had quitted the

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United States in the spring of this year, and received an important command in the allied army.

With the battle of Dresden ended the victorious career of the French in this campaign. A few days afterwards, general Vandamme, with 10,000 men, was forced to capitulate to a body of the allies. An accession of about 55,000 men was received by the latter by virtue of a treaty with Bavaria. The crown prince of Sweden joined them about the same time; and, after a series of hard fought actions, the French were obliged again to fall back to the Elbe. On the fifth of October, Napoleon quitted Dresden, in company with the king of Saxony, and concentrated his forces, about 180,000 strong, in the vicinity of Leipsic. To this point the operations of the allies were now directed; and, on the sixteenth, eighteenth, and nineteenth of October, were fought those decisive battles which settled the fate of Europe. The allies were greatly superior in number to the French, but it may reasonably be doubted whether success would have crowned their efforts, had not a spirit of disaffection prevailed among the German confederates of the French. The desertion of a large body of Saxon troops on the eighteenth, laid open an important point in the French line, and although every thing that military skill and valour could do to repair the loss was effected, the mischief was irreparable. Napoleon ordered a retreat upon Erfurth, and the whole of that night was employed in the operation. On the succeeding morning Leipsic was carried by storm. The king of Saxony, with all his court, the French garrison and rear guard of 30,000 men, and the sick and wounded, computed at upwards of 20,000, with the magazines, stores, and artillery, fell into the hands of the allies. Napoleon himself escaped with difficulty. The battles of Leipsic will long retain a conspicuous place in history, from the immense number of the hostile troops, the skill and rank of the commanders, and the great interests at stake. Some part of the success of the allies ought certainly to be attributed to the moral influence of their cause; and the desertion of the Saxons and Bavarians from the side of Napoleon affords an additional proof of the instability of

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those alliances, which are founded on fear rather than on affection.

The operations of the Spanish war during this period, although on a smaller scale than those of which we have endeavoured to give a general outline, were still of some moment in a political point of view. At the close of the year 1812, the main French army was cantoned in the neighbourhood of Salamanca and Valladolid, and occupied various posts on the Tagus. The reverses in Russia had obliged the French emperor to withdraw a considerable portion of the best troops from Spain, together with which he recalled marshal Soult, the most able of his surviving lieutenants. The force left was far inferior in numbers to that of lord Wellington; and in discipline and equipment much below what is generally seen in French armies. A contracted scale of operations, and those chiefly on the defensive, seemed to be the only course left for king Joseph to pursue.

The campaign, however, did not commence till towards the end of May. On the advance of the allies, the French were compelled successively to abandon Madrid and Valladolid. On the twelfth of June lord Wellington arrived at Burgos, through which they had retreated after destroying the works. Under the command of king Joseph, the French now took a position in front of Vittoria, where, on the twentieth, they were attacked by the whole force of the allies. The superior numbers of the latter carried the day, though not until after a hard struggle, which cost them upwards of five thousand men in killed and wounded. The French loss did not greatly exceed this amount. Few prisoners were taken, but nearly all their artillery and baggage fell into the hands of the victors.

The consequences of the defeat were the evacuation of all this part of Spain by the invaders, who retreated across the Bidassoa into France. The intelligence of the reverses experienced by his army induced the emperor to order back marshal Soult, who was constituted commander-in-chief of the French forces in Spain, and joined his army on the thirteenth of July. On the twenty-fourth he attacked the British posi-

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tion at Roncevalles, and drove the allies back with considerable slaughter. Various other engagements took place in this mountainous district, in which the French, although seldom exceeding fifty thousand men, were generally victorious. St. Sebastians, however, fell into the hands of the allies on the thirty-first of August. An unsuccessful attempt to carry it by storm had been made on the twenty-fifth of July, which occasioned a severe loss. The final assault succeeded, with the loss of upwards of three thousand men, and was followed by the perpetration of outrages upon the unfortunate inhabitants, which will long remain a blot upon the British character. After several spirited actions of posts, the army of lord Wellington entered France on the seventh of October.

On the eastern coast of Spain, attempts were also made to dislodge the French, but with a different result. The English general, sir John Murray, landed a considerable force in that quarter, and invested Tarragona. On receiving intelligence of the approach of marshal Soult, he raised the siege, and, without waiting to ascertain the strength of the French, retreated precipitately to his ships, leaving behind all his artillery. He was succeeded in command by lord Bentinck, who resumed the siege, but abandoned it on the advance of Suchet. Tarragona was subsequently evacuated by the garrison, after they had destroyed the works.

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SECTION IV.

From the battle of Leipsic to the second Abdication of Napoleon. 1813 *to* 1815.

The influence of the fatal defeat at Leipsic, upon the French interests in Europe, became visible not long after that event. The remaining links of the confederation of the Rhine were soon broken asunder. Hanover was freed from the occupation of the French by the army of the crown prince of Sweden, and the king of Wirtemberg, who owed his regal title to the favour of Napoleon, now joined the ranks of his enemies. But the most important of these events was a revolution which took place in Holland. On the fifteenth of November an insurrection against the French authorities arose in Amsterdam. The Orange colours were hoisted, and a temporary administration was organized in the name of the late stadtholder. The example was followed by the principal towns in Holland and Utrecht, and a deputation was sent to London to invite the prince of Orange to come over and place himself at the head of his countrymen. The invitation was accepted, and the prince landed from a British man of war on the twenty-fifth, and made his entry into Amsterdam on the first of December. The Russian army, under general Winzingerode, had previously occupied Amsterdam, and the small number of the French troops rendered resistance unavailing.

On the retreat of Napoleon from Leipsic, a large body of French troops had been left in Dresden, under the command of marshal St. Cyr. The place was immediately blockaded by the Russians; but the garrison, although reduced by disease and famine to a wretched condition, held out until the twelfth of November, when they were compelled to surrender, to the number of about fifteen thousand. In the same month the French garrison in Stettin and its forts, amounting to 7000 men, also capitulated.

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The main body of the allied army was in the mean time improving its successes. The retreat of the French from Leipsic had been conducted in great disorder, and a large number of prisoners fell into the hands of the victors. An attempt, however, which was made by a combined Austrian and Bavarian army to intercept the retiring troops under Napoleon, met with a signal discomfiture. The allies still kept close on the footsteps of the French till their arrival at Frankfort. On the seventh of November, Napoleon crossed the Rhine at Mentz, and proceeded without delay to Paris. The senate was immediately convened, and a new army of three hundred thousand men placed at his disposal. But a small part of this force was nevertheless raised. The conscripts now called out were necessarily raw and undisciplined, and much of that *prestige* which formerly appeared to hang around this great commander, had been dissipated by recent events. That enthusiasm, too, which animated the people of France in the early part of the revolutionary contest, had almost entirely subsided. There still existed in France a considerable degree of patriotism; but it was not that species of patriotism which republicans feel; because it had reference only to the mere country, and to the social ties common to all mankind, and was not warmed and invigorated by an attachment to the form of government, and those by whom it was administered.

The allied sovereigns had now advanced with their armies to the line which divided them from France; and on the first of December, they issued a proclamation expressed in terms of great moderation and propriety. It referred to the ambitious views of Napoleon as the cause of their taking up arms, and professed their willingness to put an end to hostilities as soon as the political state of Europe should be re-established on a just equilibrium of power, promising, at the same time, to confirm to the French empire an extent of territory which France had never possessed under her kings. This declaration being promulgated, Napoleon felt himself compelled to pay so much regard to public opinion, which in his situation was important, as to announce that he had en-

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tered into negociations with the allies, and had accepted of the preliminary bases which they had presented.

The latter, although they agreed to negociate, determined not to suspend their military operations. They accordingly crossed the Rhine at different times and places, from Coblentz to Basle, in three divisions, under prince Schwartzenburg, marshal Blucher, and the crown prince Bernadotte. The whole force that entered France is supposed not to have been much less than half a million of men. The first armies which passed the Rhine, however, did not exceed three hundred thousand. By the middle of January, marshal Blucher had advanced to Nancy, and prince Schwartzenburg to Langres. On the 25th of that month, Napoleon left Paris, to put himself at the head of his armies. He immediately advanced to St. Dizier, and with wonderful activity and skill attacked and routed different bodies of the allies: but an engagement at La Rothiere, on the 1st of February, in which he commanded, terminated in his retreat, with the loss of seventy-three pieces of cannon, and a considerable number of men. Its consequences were the advance of the allies to Troyes, which was entered on the 7th of February, and the capture of Chalons sur Saone by the Austrians. Napoleon, finding himself thus unable to contend in a general line of operations with the vastly superior force of the allies, determined to concentrate his troops, and to endeavour to cut off their communication with each other, and to beat them in detail.

His first enterprise was against the army of Blucher, which, after a series of well-fought actions, he beat back to Chalons sur Maine, and destroyed its connection with the Austrians. Schwartzenberg, in the mean time, taking advantage of these operations, had pushed forward upon Paris, in the direction of the Seine. Sens was taken on the 11th of February, and a body of Cossacks had even penetrated to Fontainebleau. Napoleon was now obliged to hasten to this quarter, and here too his great genius triumphed. The Austrians were compelled to fall back upon Troyes, from which also they were driven on the 23d, and this city was re-entered in triumph by Napoleon. It was, however, recovered on the 4th of March by

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general Wrede, Napoleon having then marched against Blucher.

The division under the crown prince was in the mean time gaining possession of different posts in the Low Countries, and a part of his force, under general Winzingerode, had advanced to Soissons, which was carried by assault. In Holland, the British failed, with great loss, in an attempt to carry Bergen op Zoom.

Negociations had been in progress at Chatillon from the time of the entrance of the allies into France. Plenipotentiaries from most of the powers of Europe were present at this congress. A suspension of arms was proposed in the first instance by the French ambassador, who offered a surrender forthwith of the fortresses in the countries which France was to give up. The proposal was rejected by the allies, who required the immediate signature of a treaty of peace, and the occupation of Paris by their forces. The 15th of March was mutually fixed on for the period of a definite answer to the treaty offered by the allies. On that day the French plenipotentiary presented a contre projet, which was immediately rejected, and the negociations were declared to be at an end.

On the 3d of March, marshal Blucher had effected a junction with the corps of Winzingerode and Bulow at Soissons. His force was thus rendered far superior to that of Napoleon. The latter, however, again attacked him, and drove him back to Laon. At this place, on the 9th, an obstinate battle was fought, which ended in the retreat of the French, with the loss of forty-eight pieces of cannon, and 5000 prisoners. The intelligence of this success now induced Schwartzenberg again to advance, and on the 21st he occupied Arcis sur Aube. Napoleon, who found himself unable to contend with forces treble his own, suddenly made a movement in the direction of St. Dizier; his plan being, as was discovered by an intercepted letter, to draw the allies off from the capital, by threatening their rear. He succeeded effectually in cutting off their communications, but the discovery of his intentions produced an immediate determination in the allied generals to unite their forces, and march directly for Paris. The resolution was carried into effect without delay. The intelligence of their ap-

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proach was a sudden stroke to the Parisians, who had been flattered into the belief that the emperor was every where victorious. The most strenuous exertions were made for the defence of the capital. On the 29th, the corps of marshal Marmont and Mortier entered the town, having retired before the advance of Blucher. The allies now arrived in sight of the capital, and were posted with their right towards Montmartre, and their left near the wood of Vincennes. Their first step was to address a proclamation to the people of Paris, in which they declared that their object was to effect a sincere and lasting reconciliation with France, which it was intimated could not be obtained as long as the government of Napoleon was permitted to exist.

Paris, however, was not given up without an obstinate resistance, which reflects the highest honour upon the little army that defended it. On the 30th of March, Joseph Bonaparte, the late king of Spain, with the corps of marshals Mortier and Marmont and the national guard of Paris, took a position on the heights in front of the city. Early in the same morning, the allies commenced an attack. A vigorous opposition was made, but the heights were at length carried. To prevent an assault, and a further effusion of blood, which under the existing circumstances would have been unavailing, a flag of truce was sent to the posts of the allies, proposing a cessation of hostilities, all the ground without the barriers of Paris being given up. The terms were accepted, and this great city, which for centuries had not been polluted by the footstep of an enemy, was now surrendered to the united armies of Europe. The corps of Marmont and Mortier were permitted by the capitulation to retire with their military appurtenances; but the arsenals and magazines were left in their existing state. On the 31st, the allied sovereigns entered Paris, accompanied by their guards and their respective suites. The emperor Alexander then issued a declaration, expressing the intentions of the confederacy. They affirmed that they would no more treat with Napoleon Bonaparte, (thus they now styled their brother monarch,) nor with any of his family, but that they would respect the integrity of ancient France. They invited the senate to appoint a provisional government, and promised

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to guarantee the constitution which the French nation should choose for itself.

It is probable that the process of dethronement had been duly arranged for some time beforehand by the intrigues of a few individuals, who had been the confidential advisers and willing agents of those schemes of ambition and oppression, which now in the season of danger they were eager to disclaim and denounce. On the 1st of April, about sixty members of the senate assembled, pursuant to an extraordinary convocation, and passed a decree for a provisional government of four persons, at the head of which was the celebrated Talleyrand. On the succeeding day, another ordinance declared that Napoleon Bonaparte had violated his compact with the French people; that he had thereby forfeited his title to the throne; and that the hereditary right established in his family was abolished.

He, upon whose political destinies the senate of France were thus legislating, endeavoured with his accustomed energy to repair the fault he had committed. His army was advanced by hasty marches from Troyes to Sens, and arrived at Fromant on the 30th. The intelligence of the occupation of Paris caused it to retire to Fontainebleau, where the proceedings of the senate were communicated to the dethroned monarch. On the 4th of April he sent a deputation to that body, offering to abdicate in favour of his son. The proposal, however, came too late, and, finding the tide of public favour to set so strongly against him, and that the allied powers had proclaimed that he was the only obstacle to the re-establishment of peace in Europe, he made an absolute renunciation for himself and his heirs of the thrones of France and Italy. On the 11th of April, a treaty was signed at Paris between the respective parties, by the articles of which the island of Elba was assigned to Napoleon as his place of residence, with full powers of sovereignty, and the continuance of the imperial title to himself and the empress for life; while certain duchies in Italy were allotted to the latter, with succession to her son and descendants. An annual revenue was also conceded to Napoleon, and the different members of his family, which was to be paid by France.

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On the 20th of April, after having been detained for some days by indisposition, this once-powerful monarch set out from Fontainebleau for his place of exile. Previous to his departure, he assembled his guards for the last time, and it was not without deep emotion that he took, as it was then supposed, a final farewell of those whom he had led to glory, and triumph, and conquest, and who were still attached to his ruined fortunes with a fidelity unshaken by temptation, and unabated by distress and adversity. In a few words, but with that pointed and forcible style for which he was always remarkable, he told them, that he had renounced the imperial crown for himself and his posterity, to save their beloved country from the miseries of a civil contest, and admonished them to be faithful to their new monarch whom France had chosen; then kissing the eagle, the standard and emblem of his empire, he joined the commissioners by whom he was to be accompanied to his little island.

To complete the narrative of the military occurrences of this period, it remains that we should notice the conclusion of the war on the Spanish frontier. The capture of the fortress of Pampeluna, which took place soon after his entry into France, disengaged the right of the allied army, and enabled lord Wellington to advance upon the French lines. A series of hard-fought engagements took place about the beginning of November, 1813, in which the superior numbers of the allies prevailed, and the French were forced to abandon their works, and subsequently to retire to an entrenched camp in front of Bayonne. On the 9th of December lord Wellington crossed the river Nive, during the passage of which, several desperate attacks were made by the French, which were finally repelled, with the loss on the part of the allies of not less than four thousand men. The able manœuvres of marshal Soult, with his little army, kept lord Wellington in check during the whole month of January. On the 25th of February, at Orthes, another sanguinary engagement was fought, which cost the allies several thousand men, and ended in the retreat of the French, and the passage of the Adour by lord Wellington. Bourdeaux was now left uncovered, and on the 12th of March marshal Beresford enter-

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ed that city. This event was followed by a declaration in favour of the Bourbon family, made by some of the principal inhabitants. The white flag was hoisted, and the duke of Angouleme, nephew to Louis XVI, who was with the British army, was received with acclamations. Marshal Soult had in the mean time retired to Tarbes, from which place he was driven on the 20th, and retreated to Toulouse. Here he fortified himself strongly, and on the 10th April was attacked by lord Wellington. The engagement was an indecisive one. The great numerical superiority of the allies, the superior equipment and discipline of their troops, were unable to effect their purpose against the consummate skill of marshal Soult, and the bravery of his raw conscripts. Upwards of fifteen thousand of the allied troops are said to have been put hors de combat in this engagement. Of the French, the loss was not more than twenty-five hundred. Shortly after this sanguinary battle, the intelligence of the revolution in Paris put a stop to further operations in this point. The war was closed by another gallant operation performed by the French. On the 14th of April, a sortie was made by the garrison of Bayonne. All the British posts were carried with great slaughter, and the British commander in chief, with a large number of his troops, were made prisoners.

On the same day on which the deed of abdication was signed by Napoleon, a new constitution, founded on the principles of a limited monarchy, was adopted by the conservative senate. By this charter, Louis Stanislaus Xavier, brother to Louis XVI, was called to the throne, and the crown was declared hereditary in him and his male descendants. This monarch, who had resided for some years in England, now left his retirement, and on the 3d of May entered the capital of France. He was received with respectful civility, but without any marks of warm or general attachment. His first acts had not been of a nature to endear him to the French people. He had assumed the title of Louis XVIII, in opposition to the expression of the senate, which had described him as the brother of the *last king*, and, instead of accepting the constitution, by which alone he could pretend any title to the throne, he had signified an intention of pro-

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posing a new charter to the legislative assembly. His subjects, too, could not but feel their national pride wounded by reflecting upon the manner in which he had been forced upon them: And the contrast between the brilliant and imposing character of their late emperor; and the physical infirmities and pacific disposition of their new monarch, which seemed to fit him rather for a cloister than a throne, was not of a nature to render them more satisfied with their choice.

Shortly after the accession of Louis XVIII, the preliminaries of peace were signed at Paris between the different powers. The most remarkable articles of these treaties were, the settlement of the limits of France as they existed on the 1st of January, 1792; the annexation of Belgium to the Dutch provinces; the erection of the whole Netherlands into a kingdom, under the sovereignty of the house of Orange; and the restoration to France of all her dependencies conquered by Great Britain, with the exception of Tobago, St. Lucia, and the Isle of France. By an article in these treaties, the different powers agreed to send ministers to a congress to be holden at Vienna at a future petiod.

In the general restoration of dignities and possessions to those who were pleased to consider themselves as their legitimate proprietors, we must not forget two, the pope, namely, and the king of Spain, whose re-establishment was necessary to complete "the ancient order of things." The first of these monarchs, after assuming his former title of "God's vicar upon earth," was re-instated in his temporal possessions, and on his part revived the order of Jesuits, and the ecclesiastical system of the holy see. The king of Spain had relieved the dreary hours of imprisonment, and solaced the deep regret he must have experienced for the bleeding condition of his unhappy subjects, by the performance of the holy offices of religion. The chief part of his time is said to have been passed in embroidering an under garment for the mother of our Saviour. By this suitable and interesting occupation, the captive monarch probably hoped to obtain the intercession of that holy person in favour of his unfortunate countrymen, or at least to secure for himself an incorruptible

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crown in place of that temporal one, for which men in general deemed him so ill qualified. One of the first acts of Napoleon after the entry of the allies into France, was to liberate him from his confinement, on certain conditions, favourable to France, to which Ferdinand acceded. He accordingly entered Spain about the month of April, 1814, and was every where received with acclamations. His subjects, who had shed their blood in defence of his rights, vied with each other in celebrating his return. The gratitude of the monarch was soon displayed in a striking manner. His first step was to reject the constitution framed by the Cortes. That body was then dissolved. The whole powers of the government were taken into his own hands. The greater part of those who had been conspicuous in his behalf, during the revolution, fell into disgrace. All who had been active in favour of liberal principles were arrested. Many were sent into exile; some were executed; and hundreds expiated in prison the crime of having breathed sentiments favourable to public liberty. The holy office of the inquisition was restored with its ancient prerogatives: and thus ended that revolution, in which so many lives had been lost, and from which so much good had been anticipated for the Spanish people.

The general congress by which the political affairs of Europe were to be settled on a permanent basis, convened at Vienna, in the autumn of 1814. To restore order from the confusion which twenty years of war and revolution had produced, was the professed object of this assembly, to which representatives from all the great powers, and most of the minor states of Europe were delegated. A minute detail of their proceedings is inconsistent with the plan of this outline. It may be sufficient to state, that their deliberations ended in the aggrandizement of Russia, Prussia, Austria, and Sweden, who came out of the wars of the French revolution with a considerable accession of territory, but with impaired finances and a weakened population. The king of Saxony was compelled to submit to a curtailment of his dominions, part of which, in spite of the opposition of that monarch and of his subjects, were made over to the king of Prussia. Genoa was annexed to Sardinia, and Venice to Austria. A new confede-

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ration of the Swiss cantons took place, at the instance of the allied powers, and Geneva, with an increase of territory, was added to the union. That part of Poland which had been occupied by Russia was annexed to the great empire, but with the preservation of its own constitution, and Alexander took the title of king of Poland. Germany was once more united under a confederation, the affairs of which are to be managed by a general assembly or diet, composed of the representatives of the different states.

While thus employed in re-modelling the face of Europe, increasing or diminishing the power of different monarchs, and transferring men like cattle from one master to another, the congress was suddenly interrupted in its deliberations, by an occurrence altogether unlooked for, and which threatened at once to destroy the web which they had been so laboriously weaving.

The restoration of the Bourbon dynasty to the throne of France could not be said to have been the act even of a majority of the people of Paris, much less could it be pretended to have received the approbation of the people at large, without which no monarch can long wear his crown, unless supported by the affection or obedience of the military. But Louis XVIII was even less beloved by the latter than by the great body of his subjects: and the contrast we have before remarked between his personal qualities, and those of Napoleon, could not fail to strike the cohorts of that great leader in a strong point of view. The commencement of the reign of Louis, however, although the charter which he had framed was not calculated to satisfy the wishes of the friends of rational freedom, was upon the whole temperate and mild, and there appeared a prospect of France again enjoying that repose of which she had been so long deprived. These agreeable dreams were soon dissipated. A few months were sufficient to shew, that the lessons of the revolution had been thrown away upon the Bourbons. Symptoms of a return to the ancient system were observable in all the actions of the court. The old nobility were pointedly preferred in favours and appointments to those who had earned their titles by services to the state; the old hierarchy, with all its in-

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tolerance, began to take its stand alongside of the throne; and, besides restoring to the emigrants their landed property that remained unsold, the idea began to gain ground, that it was in the contemplation of the government to appropriate that which was in the hands of innocent purchasers to the same purpose. The charter, too, given by Louis himself, had been grossly violated in several instances, and while by these measures a serious discontent was excited, the ceremony of disinterring the remains of Louis XVI and his queen, and various other religious pageants, served to throw ridicule upon the antiquated solemnities of the court.

During this period, the former master of France was apparently enjoying the pleasures of repose and retirement in his little isle, and seemed to take no further interest in the business or politics of France, than as one who from a distance contemplates the swell of the billows, and the other indications of an approaching storm. His mind, however, was otherwise occupied than in the concerns of Elba. Whether there existed, during the period of his exile, an understanding with the former chiefs of his party, and an arrangement in regard to his return, is a point which appears yet involved in obscurity. If no direct communication had taken place, still he could not be ignorant of the discontent of the French people, and of the disposition of the army in his favour. In the winter of 1814–15 he manifested an unusual fondness for retirement from strangers, and appeared chiefly employed in disciplining his little army.

On the evening of the 26th of February, 1815, this extraordinary man embarked at Porto Ferrajo, on board a brig, followed by four small vessels, all together conveying about a thousand men, of whom a few only were French, the rest being Poles, Corsicans, Neapolitans, and Elbese. On the 1st of March the expedition anchored off the small town of Cannes, in Provence, where the troops were landed. The emperor, for, by a proclamation issued on landing, he had resumed his former titles, then put himself at their head, and marched for Grenoble. An opportunity was soon given to test the inclinations of the French soldiery. The 7th regiment of the line, commanded by colonel Labedoyere, was in garrison

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at that place. On the news of his advance, they marched out with enthusiasm, and joined the ranks of their former chieftain. On the 8th, the garrison opened their gates to him, and he was now supplied with a body of regular troops and a train of artillery.

On the succeeding day he entered Lyons, whither the king's brother had repaired, accompanied by marshal Macdonald, on the receipt of the intelligence at Paris of the landing of the emperor. Finding, however, that no regular opposition could be made in this quarter, they had withdrawn a short time previous to the entrance of Napoleon.

The news of the landing of this dangerous opponent had filled the court of the Bourbons with astonishment and dismay. The unfortunate king saw that he had no hold on the affections of the people, and that little was to be expected from the services of the army. He attempted to purchase the good will of both, by concessions and explanations that ought to have been made before. It was now too late. Some effort, however, was necessary to oppose the rapid advance of the invader. A considerable body of troops was posted at Melun, for the immediate protection of Paris, and another corps was stationed at Montargis, on the road to Fontainebleau. Great reliance was placed on marshal Ney, who had made a voluntary offer of his services to the king, and had been appointed to the command of about 12,000 men, posted at Lons le Saulnier. The dependence, however, was vain. As soon as the emperor had advanced to Auxerre, he was joined by the marshal with his whole force. This step decided the fate of the expedition. All confidence in the army being now at an end, the king, with the royal family and some of the court, left Paris on the 19th, which was entered by Napoleon on the following day. Thus, by one of the most sudden and extraordinary revolutions recorded in history, was the throne of a great empire taken possession of, and its former sovereign expelled, without the loss of a drop of blood.

It was not enough, however, for the new emperor to have received the sanction of the people of France in his enterprize. Those who had declared in the preceding year "that

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they would no more treat with him, nor with any of his family," could not be supposed to have altered their intentions in so short a space of time. The congress of Vienna was in session at the moment, and, as soon as intelligence of the event reached that place, a manifesto was published by the sovereigns who had been party to the treaty of Paris, in which they declared that they were firmly resolved to maintain the articles of that convention, and with an extraordinary decree of rancour they added, that by breaking that convention, "Napoleon Bonaparte had placed himself without the pale of civil and social relations," and "destroyed the only legal title on which his existence depended." This inflammatory proclamation, which tended to produce the assassination of the individual against whom it was directed, was followed by a treaty signed on the 25th of March, by which the four powers of Austria, Russia, Great Britain, and Prussia, agreed to maintain in the field 150,000 men each, and not to lay down their arms until Napoleon should be deprived of the power of again disturbing the peace of Europe.

The situation of the emperor of France was not without difficulties arising from other causes. He was no longer the absolute monarch of the empire, supported by a veteran army able to cope with the confederated force of Europe. Previous wars, and the policy of Louis XVIII, had diminished the number of the military in a considerable degree, and weakened their discipline and force. To give his cause, then, any prospect of success, it was necessary that the enthusiasm of the people should be excited, and the new war upon which they were about entering become a national one. This, however, could not be effected, without attaching the people to the government, by giving them a free constitution, and thus weakening his own personal powers. The political party, too, who had aided his return, consisted for the most part of the friends of liberty, and appeared determined to receive him only as a limited monarch. In this state of things, he was compelled to adopt a system, for which it is probable he had no serious attachment at heart. On his first landing, he had issued a decree, dissolving the chamber of peers and

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deputies, and ordering an assembly of the electoral colleges at Paris in the ensuing May, for the purpose of correcting and modifying the constitution. On the 23d of April, he promulgated what was called "An additional Act to the Constitutions of the Empire," in which he professed to have endeavoured to combine the highest point of political liberty and individual safety, with the strength necessary to secure the independence and dignity of the empire. The ceremonial of the *Champ de Mai*, which was deferred until the 1st of June, took place on that day. This imposing spectacle was attended by deputies from almost all parts of France, who announced the nearly unanimous acceptance of the constitution by the people; to the observance of which the emperor and the assembly bound themselves by oath. The two chambers were then constituted and commenced their sittings. Having thus ordered political matters, the emperor began to prepare for the contest, which it was evident was close at hand.

In conformity with arrangements made by the treaty of Paris, the principal fortresses in Belgium, on the French frontier, had been occupied by British troops, and by those of the Netherlands. From the period of the landing of Napoleon in France, this force was continually increased, and the whole placed under the command of the duke of Wellington. In the month of May, the Prussian army, under marshal Blucher, amounting to about one hundred and twenty thousand men, arrived at Namur, and was stationed in that vicinity. The troops under the command of lord Wellington, in number about one hundred thousand, were also cantoned in different parts of the same neighbourhood.

On the 12th of June, Napoleon left Paris, to decide his title by the sword. Having collected together a force of about one hundred thousand men, he hoped, notwithstanding the superior numbers of the Prussians and English, to defeat them before the remainder of the allies could get into the field. In conformity with this plan, a general attack was made on the Prussian outposts on the 15th, which compelled them to fall back upon Fleurus, whence they were again driven. On the 16th, marshal Blucher concentrated his whole force at Ligny, where, after a hot engagement, he was totally de-

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feated, with the loss of 16 pieces of cannon, and a considerable number of prisoners. His army was, however, brought off in good order, in consequence of the intervention of night, which prevented a pursuit, and fell back upon Wavre. While the Prussians were thus occupied, a division of the French army, under marshal Ney, amounting to about twenty-five thousand men, had driven before them a body of Belgians to a position at a spot called Quatre Bras. Here, on the 16th, the greater part of the army of lord Wellington, who appears to have been completely taken by surprise, was beaten by the corps of marshal Ney, with the loss of five thousand men, and compelled to fall back to Gemappe. On the morning of the 17th, lord Wellington continued his retreat, and took a position with his whole force, amounting to about one hundred thousand men, on the heights of mount St. John, in the vicinity of the village of Waterloo, crossing the main road to Brussels, and having the wood of Soignies with its defiles in the rear.

Napoleon, after detaching marshal Grouchy, with thirty-five thousand men, in the direction taken by the Prussians, moved himself with the rest of the army, reduced now to sixty thousand men, in pursuit of the English. On the 17th, they were discovered posted on the heights of Waterloo, and a corresponding position was taken by the French army. Had an attack been then made, or at an earlier hour of the next day, inferior in numbers as the French were, it is probable that the British army would have suffered a route much more complete than that of the Prussians at Ligny, as, from the unmilitary position taken by lord Wellington, he would have been unable to save the wings of his army, had the centre been driven in. Unfortunately for the cause of French independence, the attack was postponed till the next day, and time was thus given to the Prussians to come up to the relief of their allies.

At 10 o'clock on the morning of the 18th of June, this memorable engagement commenced. A series of vigorous assaults were made upon the British position, supported by a heavy cannonade against the whole line, which was received with great firmness by the allies. In one of these onsets the

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farm house of la Haye Sainte, the key of the British left, was carried with great slaughter. The battle raged with great fury on both sides during the whole day. The French were gradually gaining ground, and began to occupy the positions of their opponents. Every thing evinced that they were about to obtain a decisive victory, when the sound of the Prussian cannon was heard on the French right. Marshal Blucher, who had been apprized by lord Wellington that he intended to receive battle at Waterloo, advanced to his relief from Wavre, and arrived in time to save his allies from destruction. A vigorous assault on the French right was commenced. Napoleon ordered up his reserve, but it was in vain to contend with the overwhelming superiority of the Prussians. The French, fatigued with twelve hours combat, fell back in confusion. The panic soon became general, and lord Wellington, taking advantage of the opportunity, advanced with his army. The French then fled from their positions, leaving the greater part of their artillery and equipments on the field, and it was not without difficulty that the emperor himself escaped. The carnage in this fatal battle was immense. The loss of the French in killed and wounded could not have been less than thirty thousand, while that of the allies in the three days has been stated by their own official authorities at upwards of fifty thousand men.

The battle of Waterloo was decisive of the fate of France. No attempt was made to collect the shattered remains of the army, and although by a masterly retreat marshal Grouchy succeeded in bringing off his corps, yet no head could be made against the overwhelming force of the allies. Finding that all was lost, the emperor hastened back to the capital, at which he arrived on the night of the 20th. On the news of his return, and of the causes which led to it, the chambers declared their sittings permanent. They saw that no hope remained of preserving France by military means, and as the allies had declared that they made war not upon the people, but upon the individual who then occupied the throne, they resolved to address the emperor, and request him to withdraw from the government, in the name and for the sake of

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their common country. They were anticipated in their design by the voluntary abdication of the monarch in favour of his son, whom he proclaimed emperor by the name of Napoleon II. The resignation was accepted by the chambers; but no measure ratifying the nomination of a successor was adopted, and a commission was appointed to repair to the allied armies to treat of peace.

The victors, however, appeared determined again to occupy the capital of France. The issue of the battle had produced a total change in their professions, and, although it had been publicly declared, previous to that event, that it was not their desire to impose a monarch on France, yet it soon became evident that nothing but the re-establishment of Louis would satisfy them. They met with little opposition in their advance through the French territory. Paris was surrendered on the 3d of July, by a capitulation which provided that no individual who remained in that city should be called to account, either for the situation he might have held, or for his political opinions. The chambers continued their sittings for a few days after the convention had been signed; but on the 8th the doors of the legislative hall were shut by order of the commandant of the national guard, and thus was dissolved an assembly of patriots as pure and enlightened as ever struggled against the power of an oppressor. On the same day the capital was re-entered by Louis XVIII, and the French people were again compelled to submit to a government repugnant to their feelings, and alien to their habits, and possessing the additional grievance of having been imposed upon them by foreign task-masters.

Of the political life of the emperor Napoleon, the closing hours were now fast approaching. On the advance of the allies to Paris, he had quitted that city, attended by a few personal friends, with the view of gaining a seaport, from which he might embark for the United States. Had he succeeded in reaching this country he would have been received with the respect due to his genius and misfortunes, and might have renewed in the new world the philosophic retirement of Salona and Plazencia. In the pure atmosphere of the republic, whatever dangerous qualities he might possess, would

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have been rendered harmless, as some poisonous plants are said to lose their deleterious powers by cultivation in other climates. And, while throwing around him the mantle of personal security, which the oppressed of every country experience in this republic, the citizens of the United States could not fail to contrast the character of his political life with that of Him who had led them in safety through the storms of their own revolution, who had wasted none of the blood of his countrymen in the projects of a vile ambition, who had supported by every action of his life the free institutions of the republic, and who, after seeing his country elevated to an unexampled height of prosperity, had voluntarily relinquished the power which the unbribed and unawed suffrages of his fellow citizens had conferred upon him.

Providence had however reserved another destiny for Napoleon than that of becoming a citizen of the United States. On his arrival at Rochefort, he found the port blockaded by a British squadron, whose vigilance prevented any hope of escaping. In this situation he took the resolution of placing himself under the protection of the British government, and accordingly, on the 15th of July, he was conveyed with his suite and baggage on board the ship of war Bellerophon, which immediately got under weigh for England. From this vessel he addressed a letter to the prince regent, claiming the protection of the laws of England, and throwing himself, like Themistocles, upon the hospitality of his enemies. None of that generous and liberal feeling, however, which was displayed in the conduct of Artaxerxes, animated the bosom of the English monarch. The fallen emperor was not even allowed to land on the shore of England. He was detained in captivity on board the Bellerophon, until the determination of the allied powers was made. In a few days orders were received for his conveyance to the island of St. Helena, a gloomy and barren rock in the middle of the Atlantic. Here he arrived on the 15th of October, 1815, and has since remained. His captivity appear to have been rendered additionally grievous by the barbarous and unmanly severity exercised towards him by the officers of the British government; and there is every reason to believe that the diseases occa-

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sioned by the rigour of his confinement will before long close the singular career of this great man.

Not long after the conclusion of the last reign of Napoleon, an enterprise similar to that in which he failed, was undertaken by the king of Naples for the recovery of his throne, of which he had been deprived by the arms of Austria. Having collected together a small body of friends, he landed on the coast of Calabria, where he hoped to excite the peasantry to take up arms in his behalf. He found them, however, cold and indifferent to his cause, and, being attacked by a superior force of the existing government, he was defeated, himself taken prisoner, tried by a military court, condemned, and executed. Thus fell Murat, one of the most distinguished men to whom the French revolution had given birth, and who, in his capacity of a monarch, had done more for the improvement and benefit of his subjects, than a whole dynasty of "legitimate" kings.

Peace followed the restoration of Louis XVIII, and has since continued in Europe. France, notwithstanding the reaction occasioned by the restoration, seems to have gained considerably in freedom and in general improvement since the revolution; and, possessing now a constitution comparatively liberal, she may hope gradually to attain the full enjoyment of the greatest of political blessings. The other nations of Europe appear to require repose to recruit their disordered finances, and repair that waste of population and industry, which so long a series of wars must have occasioned.

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SPANISH AMERICA.

From the Revolution of Old Spain in 1808.

Few countries have undergone a more important change in political affairs since the period with which the Universal History of Dr. Ramsay closed, than the Spanish provinces of America. The attempted alteration of dynasty in the mother country was followed by a series of revolutions in her dominions on this side of the Atlantic, the issue of which is still in the womb of time. A very brief and superficial outline of these events is all that can be given in this place.

Notwithstanding the many grievances under which the people of Spanish America laboured, from the cruel and mistaken policy by which the governments of modern Europe have generally been guided in regard to colonies, they still appear to have retained a strong attachment to the parent state. This feeling was clearly evinced throughout the whole of this immense country, when intelligence was received of the invasion of Spain and the captivity of Ferdinand. The example of the patriotic juntas was followed in every quarter; Ferdinand was proclaimed with enthusiasm, and the sufferings of their European brethren, as they still generously considered them, excited universal sympathy. Upwards of ninety millions of dollars are said to have been sent to Spain from her Spanish settlements previous to 1810, besides private contributions to a large amount. The central junta of Seville was at first generally recognized as administering the affairs of Spain.

The Spanish provinces, however, could not but perceive that the period was arrived in which a redress of their grievances was, if ever, to be obtained. A new era had taken place in Old Spain, and it was hoped that the same freedom which the Spaniards were claiming for themselves, would be

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extended to America. In this hope they were destined to be disappointed. The old system of mis-government, of monopoly, and of oppression, was pursued by the central junta, by the regency that succeeded them, and by the general cortes. The influence of the merchants of Cadiz, whose interests were opposed to any change in the odious system of monopolies, was sufficient to defeat the claims of justice and true policy.

The first step taken in the provinces, after the revolution in the government in Spain, was the appointment of juntas, or assemblies of the principal men, in imitation of those of the mother country. This measure was resisted in Caraccas, Mexico, and other places, by the royal officers, and, until the formation of the regency in Old Spain in 1810, was not generally carried into effect. In that year, the inhabitants of Caraccas believing that the regency was illegally constituted, and that the power of France was firmly established, determined to take the government into their own hands. An union was formed with the adjoining provinces, which assumed the name of the confederation of Venezuela, and a supreme junta was established, administering affairs, however, in the name of Ferdinand. In the same year juntas were established at Buenos Ayres, New Grenada, Chili, and Mexico.

These independent proceedings determined the regency to take such measures as were in their power to cause their authority to be respected. By a decree issued in August, 1810, the province of Caraccas was declared in a state of rigorous blockade, and troops were sent out to different parts of South America to enforce the royal government. The temper of the cortes which assembled at Cadiz in September, 1810, was equally at variance with conciliation and sound policy. In this state of things, the confederation of Venezuela publicly declared itself independent, by a solemn instrument published on the 5th of July, 1811. Similar declarations were made in Mexico, by the confederation of New Grenada, and subsequently by the congress of Buenos Ayres.

For some time after the declaration of independence, the prospects of the Venezuelans were sufficiently flattering. A

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liberal constitution was formed for the government of the union; a considerable military force supported the wishes of the people; and commerce, which had been opened to other countries, flourished in an unprecedented degree. This prosperity was, however, but of short duration. On the 26th of March, 1812, Venezuela was visited by an earthquake of unusual violence. Upwards of twenty thousand persons fell victims to it, and the town of Caraccas, with several others, was totally destroyed. This awful calamity was unfortunately interpreted by a great part of the people into a judgment of Heaven upon their recent political measures. The general congress became unpopular, and Monteverde, who commanded a royalist army, taking advantage of the situation of the Venezuelans, marched against them, and, after beating the celebrated general Miranda, who commanded the independents, compelled the province of Caraccas to submit, and brought Venezuela once more under the Spanish government.

In 1813, however, these provinces were again restored to freedom by Bolivar, who, having been sent by the confederation of New Grenada to the aid of the Venezuelans, defeated the royalists in several engagements, and took possession of Caraccas. In the succeeding year he was in his turn defeated by Boves, a royalist officer, and compelled to evacuate the Caraccas. At Araguita he was again defeated in August, 1814, and, seeing little prospect of restoring independence to his country, embarked for Carthagena. In 1816 he again returned in force; and since that period the contest has been maintained with various success, but stained by the perpetration of great cruelties on both sides. The cause of independence appears upon the whole to gain ground, and will no doubt eventually triumph, although the dispute may be protracted for several years.

In Mexico the royalist party appears predominant. Measures similar to those of Venezuela were taken in that country soon after the revolution in Old Spain, and for a short time the patriot forces were victorious in all their engagements. But the tide of success turned against them, and what produced the most decisive effect in favour of the old gov-

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ernment was the appointment of Don Juan de Apodaca as viceroy, in place of Don Felix Calleja. The mild and conciliating policy of the new governor won over the affections of the Mexicans, and, if we may give credit to the Spanish accounts, the revolution in that quarter is nearly at an end. Part of the Provincias Internas, however, held out for a considerable time against this revival of the royal authority. In the month of May, 1817, a considerable force, under general Mina, who had distinguished himself in the war of the peninsula, arrived at Matagorda, and entered Mexico. For a few months fortune smiled upon their arms; but in the month of October of that year this gallant officer was signally defeated. He himself was taken prisoner, and executed on the 11th of November. Since that event few occurrences of moment have transpired.

New Grenada, which comprehends the provinces between Guatimala, Venezuela, and Peru, has, like the rest of Spanish America, undergone many vicissitudes of fortune. There appears, however, considerable reason to hope that here, as well as in Venezuela, the patriot cause will in the end triumph.

The united provinces of the Rio de la Plata, after enjoying for some years an actual independence, formally dissolved the connection with Spain, by a declaration issued on the 9th of July, 1816. Previous to this period considerable division of opinion existed among the people, unskilled in the business of self-government, and possessing little confidence in their officers or themselves. Both the form of government, which, however, has always, since 1810, been essentially free, and those by whom it was administered, have been repeatedly changed. Since the election of Don J. M. Pueyrredon to the office of supreme director, a kind of dictatorship which appears to have been rendered necessary by the situation of the country, these dissensions have been less frequent.

The provinces of Entre Rios, and Banda Oriental, on the eastern shore of the La Plata, are, although independent of Spain, and nominally united to the confederation of Buenos Ayres, in a state of hostility with the latter. This unfortunate division arose from a dispute between the government of Buenos Ayres, and Artigas, one of the officers employed in

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an expedition to reduce Montevideo. The latter has collected a considerable force under his standard, and has defeated the troops of the confederation in several engagements. After a long period of hostility, an armistice was concluded between the two parties on the 5th of April, 1819, which, it appears probable, will lead to a final settlement of the dispute, and an union of the whole country in support of their independence. Montevideo, however, which was occupied by a Portuguese army under general Lecor in January, 1817, remains still in their possession.

Of all Spanish America, that which is comprised within the confederation of La Plata may be considered as the most firmly secured in its independence. The government appears now to be well established in the opinion of the people, and the population is numerous, and has become enlightened and improved in an astonishing degree, since the yoke of Spain has been withdrawn. In the month of November, 1817, the government of the United States sent out three commissioners, Messrs. Rodney, Graham, and Bland, to ascertain the actual condition and political prospects of these provinces. On their return to the United States, in the succeeding year, they presented a report to the president, which gives on the whole a favourable picture of the condition of the new republic, and authorises the belief that their independence is now beyond the reach of injury from Spain. In the month of March, 1818, a resolution was offered in the house of representatives of the United States by the speaker, Mr. Clay, appropriating a certain sum to defray the expenses of a minister to these provinces. The question, which involved the propriety and expediency of recognizing their independence, produced an animated debate, which lasted several days. The resolution was finally negatived by a vote of 115 to 45. A new constitution was established in the confederation of La Plata on the 25th of May, 1819. The provisions, as far as they are known, are favourable to independence and freedom.

In the captain-generalship of Chili, the same revolutionary steps were taken in 1810, that were adopted in other parts of the continent. A congress assembled in 1811, but appears not to have been popular with the people. In 1814, nearly

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the whole district was subdued by a royalist army from Lima, and remained in their possession until 1817, when a body of troops under general San Martin, assisted by a force from Buenos Ayres, succeeded, after several hard fought battles, in expelling them. Chili appears now to be in a situation to defend itself with success. Independence has been declared, and a free constitution established, while an intimate union, advantageous to both parties, appears to be maintained with the confederation of Buenos Ayres.

THE END.

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Madison.

Banks, S.

Dumfries.

Harrison, Philip

Campbell.

Clark, William

Louisa.

Clayton, Arthur

Albemarle.

Lewis, David S.

Northumberland.

Gordon, William

Lewisburg, Greenbriar.

Wethered, Pere B.

Pittsylvania.

Townes, George

Gloucester.

Balfour, James B.
Logwood, Thomas

Malaga.

Barrel, G. G. American Consul.

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